The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 26, 1889.

The Week.

THE meeting of the Executive Committee of the Civil-Service Reform League last week ended in the appointment of a committee to investigate and report on the civil service of the Government, both in its relations to the Civil-Service Law and to the principle of civil-service reform. Mr. W. D. Foulke of Indiana, the well-known Republican civil-service reformer of that State, is the Chairman, will reside in Washington during the winter, and will do the greater portion of the work. Mr. Sherman S. Rogers of Buffalo, and Mr. Charles J. Bonaparte of Baltimore, also Republicans who voted for Harrison, and Mr. Richard H. Dana of Boston, are the other members. Mr. Henry C. Lea of Philadelphia declined to serve on account of his health, but he contributes handsomely to the expenses, and will print and distribute widely a pamphlet containing the civil-service reform pledges both of the President and of the Republican party, with some cognate matter. Due credit will be given by the Committee for whatever good in this field President Harrison has accomplished—for it must be admitted that his administration of the Civil-Service Act has been, on the whole, very faithful. In other words, it will extenuate nothing, and set down nothing in malice, but it will seek to let light in on the whole administrative machine.

Superintendent Porter of the Census Bureau is quoted as complaining of the assaults of the office-seekers, and describing his position as "waist deep in Congressmen" after offices for constituents. We are very glad to hear that he is having a bad time of it. Porter was last year the editor of a Republican organ which called for "the further extension of the reform system, already established by law, to all the grades of the service to which it is applicable"; and who yet, when appointed head of a bureau with 2,500 subordinates to which that system was applicable, opposed its extension so as to cover them. If he is now bored almost to death by the spoilsmen, it is just what he deserves.

The Republican Boys have adopted a new constitution, which, according to the best authorities, consolidates their Machine into the most compact trading organization that the city has ever seen. They have abolished the annual enrolment of members, and taken the question of admission of new members into their own hands. They have voted down a resolution forbidding trading by the district leaders, and have, by an overwhelming vote, decided that such trading is not only praiseworthy and patriotic, but is the chief thing that "we are here for." In fact, the Boys have "bounced" the Better Element, slammed the door of the fold behind them, and started business for themselves as a Trading and Dealing Company, all rights reserved, quick sales and prompt deliveries to the highest bidders, no matter what their political faith or previous condition of party servitude. "Tom" Platt, who had a scheme of his own for organizing the Machine to be used by himself alone for trading, is left completely in the cold, for the Boys are determined to have for themselves whatever profits there may be in the business. They propose to receive John J. O'Brien into the fold again at an early day, and by the time the next national campaign opens they will be in readiness for, and in expectation of, the briskest season of business that they have ever known.

How completely a secret ballot thwarts the best laid plans and hopes of the politicians was shown clearly by the result of the city election at Meriden, Conn., on Tuesday week. The city, for many years a Republican stronghold, has of late shown a steady Democratic growth, and was carried by Mr. Cleveland in 1888 by the handsome plurality of 339, as compared with 54 in 1884. Made presumptuous by success, the Democrats last week tried to put in a bad city ticket, and brought to its aid all the force of a compact and well-drilled local organization. The election was held under the new Connecticut Secret-Ballot Law, itself very imperfect as compared with the Australian scheme. Although the carefully kept tallies of the Democratic workers indicated that some 200 more voters of their party faith than Republicans entered the booths, and the Republican workers admitted Democratic success at the close of the polling, yet the count of the ballots brought forth a general Republican victory, with a majority of 243 for the candidate for Mayor. Not many examples of the kind are needed to show why the political bosses so obstinately resist ballot reform.

Speaker Reed's committee appointments average very well, and especial praise is due for the composition of the Committee on the Civil Service, nearly all of whom are known as stanch defenders of the existing law, and some of them as favorable to that "further extension of the reform system" demanded and promised by the Republican national platform. A good deal of foolish talk is heard about the fact that most of the chairmanships go to the West under Mr. Reed, while they went to the South under Mr. Carlisle. The explanation is that the strength of the party which is now dominant is in the West, while in the three previous Houses it was in the South. How little weight such matters have with the voters is shown by the fact that eight years ago a House of Representatives elected a Republican Speaker who gave the chairmanships to Northern Representatives, and that in 1882, after one session of that body, the people elected another House of Representatives, which contained 196 Democrats out of 325 members.

Senator Blair has secured from the Committee on Education and Labor a favorable report upon his "Bill to Promote Mendicancy," as was to have been expected, most of the members of that Committee having endorsed the measure time and again in the past. But though the Committee on Education and Labor may show no change, there has been during these years a revolution in the public sentiment of the country regarding the scheme until, as that Minnesota Republican journal, the St. Paul *Pioneer Press*, says, "nobody believes in it but a few sentimentalists and surplus-killers." A striking illustration of this change in sentiment is afforded by the present attitude of the Cleveland *Leader*, a thorough-going Republican organ of Ohio. At first the *Leader* favored the Blair bill, but now it considers "it quite certain, from the tone of the journals of the country, that the revival of the Blair Educational Bill or the introduction of any measure proposing national aid to education will meet with small favor." It points out that no part of President Harrison's message has been so earnestly dissented from by Republican newspapers as the section in which he endorsed this idea, and, after quoting the deliverances of the Hartford *Courant*, the Buffalo *Express*, and the St. Paul *Pioneer Press*, it says: "Such comments from journals in such widely separated as well as such strongly Republican sections cannot be misunderstood. They are by no means all that might be quoted. Papers that have endorsed the recommendation have done so for the most part in a merely perfunctory way, while many have treated it with silent disregard. It is very evident that public feeling has set in strongly against this scheme, and the less time Congress spends over it the better."

There is something almost sublime in the audacity of Gov. Foraker's friends in petitioning the President to appoint him as Minister to Russia. He has been repudiated in an unmistakable manner by his own party in Ohio after many years of service, being defeated by several thousands of votes while the remainder of the Republican ticket was elected; and simultaneously with this repudiation came the disclosure that he had been the adviser and abettor in an effort to defeat his competitor for the Governorship by means of a campaign forgery. He accepted that forgery as genuine, though it involved Senator Sherman and Congressmen McKinley and Butterworth of his own party, and he gave it to Mr. Halstead, the editor of the chief Republican organ of the State, who suppressed the Republican names on the forged document and published only that of the Democratic candidate for Governor. He himself used the forged document as genuine in his campaign speeches, and declined to make retraction when the forgery had been exposed. An investigation by Congress has been ordered, at which Gov. Foraker should testify. To send him to Russia

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while this is pending would be scandalous. That such a proposal should be made is as preposterous as Mr. Halstead's conduct in continuing to denounce daily in his newspaper all kinds of reform and reformers as "frauds" and "humbugs," while at the same time confessing that he published so much of a campaign forgery as was damaging to his opponents, and suppressed so much of it as would have damaged his party friends.

Gov. Hill's conduct in depriving the Albany *Argus* of State printing which that paper has had, whenever the Democratic party has been in power in the State, for seventy-five years, and awarding it to his personal organ, the Albany *Times*, is exciting much comment for various reasons. The new editorial mouthpiece is a man who has served one term in the penitentiary, and is generally believed to have been entitled to another. In 1864, though he had been elected as a Democratic member, he received a "loan" of $1,200 from the Republicans, was elected by them to the Speakership, and organized the Assembly as a Republican body. In return for this service he was appointed to a Federal office by a Republican President, and, while holding that office, was found guilty of collecting fees for illegal purposes, and was sentenced to the Albany Penitentiary for a term of years. Since his assumption of editorial functions he has been a persistent "knifer" of his party's candidates, and has conducted a newspaper which has won neither the confidence nor the respect of any honest man in any party. The *Times* is not a Democratic but a Hill paper. In fact, except as the personal organ of the Governor, it has no excuse for existence. It has attacked Mr. Cleveland venomously for years, opposing his election to the Presidency in 1884 and in 1888. It has had this superiority to Gov. Hill, that it has done its fighting against its party's candidate openly. So far as ability, influence, and circulation go, it has none worth mentioning, being, in fact, one of the most insignificant newspapers in the State. That the Governor should openly take his stand in its support, after its political course of the past few years, thus coming out without further concealment as an anti-Cleveland man, is taken in many quarters as an indication that he was greatly enraged by Mr. Cleveland's Boston speech, and has decided to make "war" upon him. If this be the correct view of his conduct, we are inclined to the opinion that it is an excellent thing for the Democratic party.

The death of Henry W. Grady, editor of the Atlanta (Ga.) *Constitution*, removes the most conspicuous journalist in the South, for, although not yet forty years of age, his name was better known than that of any other editor in that part of the country. This sudden ending of his career is the more impressive from the fact that the disease which caused his death was contracted during his recent trip to Boston, where he made a speech on the race question which attracted national attention. Mr. Grady proved himself again by that speech, as by one delivered in this city two years ago, an exceedingly effective orator of that somewhat florid school which is steadily losing its old hold, but which still occasionally produces an effort of great power over the audience that hears it. His latest appearance was by far the most effective of all his appeals to the public, as it combined with abounding rhetoric an uncommon amount of sound philosophy upon the issues which underly the existing difficulties in the Southern situation.

The letter of a Little Rock correspondent of the *Evening Post* points out "two or three leading ideas" upon which satisfactory liquor legislation has been carried out—strange as it may appear to some readers—in Arkansas. Think of the license tax having been increased until it is $1,200 annually in towns and $700 in the rural districts, in such a remote and primitive community as Arkansas! Each county, moreover, is required to decide every two years, at the general election, whether license shall prevail during the next two years or not, and this must be determined by an affirmative majority—if, for example, a vote on the question be not taken, prohibition ensues. Moreover, in subdivisions of a license county, even ("within three miles of any church or school-house"), a majority of the men and women may exclude the sale of liquor from their neighborhood. This is the very flower of high license and local option. The correspondent's observation that the State has no power to punish violation of a liquor statute we understand as an approximate phrase, to be read in connection with his following sentences. Certainly there is no real power of suppression save through the courts and officers of those communities which are determined that the law shall be enforced. This letter makes it clear that New York may learn one lesson of civilization from Arkansas.

The *Dry Goods Economist* of this city has prepared a memorial to Congress showing how the duties on wool are strangling the woollen industry in this country, and the argument it offers is one of the strongest we have seen. It is by no means radical in its demands, being limited to a change in the rates from specific to ad-valorem. How the present rates operate to protect the European manufacturer at the expense of the American is shown by an illustration from actual experience. "This office," says the *Economist*, "had in its possession a short time ago"—

(1.) A sample of Cape wool that costs 8 cents per pound, on which the duty is 10 cents per pound, or 125 per cent.

(2.) A sample of "tops" made from the same wool, the cost of which was 33 cents per pound, on which the duty is 60 cents per pound, or 181 per cent.

(3.) A sample of yarn made from these "tops," the cost of which was 52 cents per pound and the duty 18 cents per pound and 18 per cent. ad valorem, or in all 70 per cent.

(4.) A sample of cloth made from the above yarn which, the cost abroad being less than 80 cents (about 78 cents) per pound, pays a duty of 35 cents per pound and 35 per cent. ad valorem, or, in all, 81 per cent.

That is to say, our American woollen-manufacturers are given the opportunity to try and earn a living under this beneficent tariff:

Raw wool	125	per cent.
Wool tops	181	do do
Yarn	70	do do
Finished cloth	81	do do

Is it any marvel that the foreign wool which we must import, either to supply the deficiency in our own clip or to furnish the necessary variety of stock, comes to us in the form of cloth under an American tariff which protects the European mill from 50 to 100 per cent.?

We understand that the movement represented by the *Economist* has the support of the leading houses in New York engaged in manufacturing and handling woollen goods.

"They manage these things better in France." So thinks Mr. T. C. Search, who writes a letter to the Philadelphia *Manufacturer* to show that the French tariff protects the *manufacturer* of woollens, not the operative in woollen mills, since the latter already works for lower wages than the English operative. The French principle, Mr. Search thinks, ought to be boldly avowed and frankly adopted in this country. As for the wool-grower, let him have whatever rate of duty Congress will give him. Then let the manufacturer have rates sufficiently high to insure him the home market anyhow. Let *him* be protected as well as labor. This view meets the approval of the editor of the *Manufacturer*, who thinks it very strange that the moment a manufacturer suggests that he needs protection *for himself* there should be a general howl of denunciation against the "robber baron." There is nothing like frankness. Will not Prof. Robert Ellis Thompson construct a reply on scientific grounds to the argument of Mr. Search?

The *Manufacturer* does some good work in the matter of Philadelphia local politics. In its last number it examines the notion, which has gained currrency in the Quaker City, that if McManes loses control of the Tax Office, he will be weaker politically than he has been for many years, and that therefore he is going to "make a bitter fight to retain the control." McManes, it should be observed, is not in the Tax Office himself, and does not desire to be. In fact, he is not in any office. He is one among a million or more of private citizens—an adopted citizen, too. But there is this peculiarity about McManes, that he is the only one of the million who will be cast down if he does not control the Tax Office, and the only one about whose control of the Tax Office there is any public agitation or concern whatsoever. Long familiarity with McManes's claim to control the Tax Office and the other offices has bred a habit of mind among Philadelphians to take all of McManes's claims as matters of course, like the weather. They are part and parcel of daily life. Citizens have insensibly acquired a mental posture which incapacitates them for looking at the Tax Office as a machine of their own devising for collecting revenue and paying it into the treasury. They see it, as it were, through an inverting telescope, at a long distance, and wrong side up; and they see McManes not as an ordinary taxpayer like themselves, but as a Khedive or Mahdi. Such, in sub-

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stance, is the description which the *Manufacturer* supplies to the boss system in Philadelphia. Yet, if we remember rightly, this powerful journal has been in the habit of speaking lightly of New York as a city ruled by foreigners.

The October Consular Report, issued by the Bureau of Statistics for the Department of State, has a very interesting contribution, from Minister Abbott of Bogota, to the literature of the Pan-American movement, which we cordially commend to the attention of the enthusiasts who think that the reason why we have but little trade with South America is, that we have no subsidized steamers to carry the mails, or that our flag is so seldom seen in South American ports. He gives his reasons for the fact that practically "all commercial relations have always been with England and France." "The Colombian," he truly says, "may admire the institutions of the great Republic, but he is not for that reason willing to pay a friend, however dear to him, four cents for a yard of cotton cloth which he can buy of some one else for two-and-a-half cents." What is oddest in this controversy about South America is that all Americans do business on exactly the same principles as the Pan-Americans. Nobody here buys goods, either home or foreign, at higher prices than he would pay elsewhere because he admires the character of the maker and had known him as a boy. No one thinks of paying an English manufacturer who sympathized with the North in the rebellion 30 per cent. more for his cotton or cutlery than the same articles could be got for from a manufacturer who sympathized with the rebels. No American manufacturer refuses to seek a market in any district at home because the railroad which would carry his goods had no land-grant. Any American who acted in his business as some try to think the Pan-Americans act, would be considered crazy in the short interval which would elapse before his bankruptcy.

Mr. Edward Bellamy, author of 'Looking Backward,' who has discovered in what he calls "Nationalism" an easy device for abolishing all those ills from which the race has suffered ever since the creation of man, delivered a speech in Boston last Thursday which "closed with an eloquent picture of the peaceful and prosperous era which is to come when, Nationalism having triumphed, there shall be no tariffs, no race issue, no intemperance, no labor question, no poverty." We note but one omission in this beatific catalogue. Mr. Bellamy should have added, "and no human nature."

The pastor of the First Baptist Church (colored) in Kansas City, Kan., resorted to a device for circumventing his adversaries at a meeting held for the election of officers on Saturday week, which we commend to the attention of politicians charged with the fixing of primaries and caucuses. The church is rent by internal dissensions, as churches so often are, the pastor, the Rev. J. R. Jones, being at the head of one faction, which, however, contains only a minority of the members. Being unable to make head against his enemies by voting, Mr. Jones staved off defeat by calling on one of his own followers to "engage in prayer" whenever a hostile motion came before the meeting. The opposition bore with this for some time, but at last their patience was exhausted, and they fired a volley of chairs and hymn-books at G. W. Smith when, in response to the pastor's call, he took up the weary task of praying against time. "Then," says the despatch, "followed a general riot," in which the negroes' favorite weapon, the razor, was freely used, and much "pounding" was done with chairs. We believe there used to be scenes of this sort in some of the early councils of the Eastern Church, and Gibbon takes unseemly delight in recalling them; but the appearance of the razor in church quarrels is, we think, absolutely new, and rather startling. We wish it might be the means of throwing some light on the origin of the negro's love of the razor as a weapon both of defence and offence. We have never seen the matter adequately discussed, and yet it is very interesting. It can hardly be due to the connection of the colored race with the barber's business, because this business suggests the scissors to a fighting man much more cogently than the razor. The scissors are admirably adapted for stabbing, while apparently the handle of the razor makes it as dangerous for the owner as his adversary in anything like a tussle. The best thing that can be said for it is that it is, as a concealed weapon, very easy to carry, and a great deal of cutting may doubtless be done with it without inflicting mortal wounds. The despatch does not tell us what happened after the riot. It must be difficult for a church to take up "unfinished business" after an experience of this sort.

The way in which the city is being relieved of its electric lights is in all respects worthy of the way in which they were supplied. It is altogether suitable that a new system of municipal lighting, created under the superintendence of a butcher, a theatrical ticket agent, and a saucy young lawyer, should be got rid of by cutting down the poles with an axe and plunging the town in darkness. This is the way the King of Dahomey would deal with the problem, and we have, in the government of this city, been in many ways close imitators of that monarch's methods. We may feel sure, however, that no great city which has once been lighted by electricity, will go back permanently to gas. We shall have electric lights in New York again, but we shall get them in civilized fashion. They ought to have been supplied in the beginning under rules carefully drawn by a board of electrical experts, prescribing the size and nature of the wires, the intensity of the currents, the mode of transmission to houses and street lamps, so as to secure the maximum of light with a minimum of danger and inconvenience. What we want now is the abolition of the present Board by an act of the Legislature, and the creation of a new one composed of competent electricians. In other words, we must begin all over again. No company will, of course, embark in the business of supplying electric lights which is liable to have its errors or shortcomings remedied by the wholesale destruction of its property by bands of laborers armed with hatchets. We must have the whole matter put under a carefully prepared law, with its execution committed to competent hands.

The charges against the Dock Commissioners, the attacks on the Aqueduct Commissioners after the failure of the attempt to oust Gen. Duane, and the summary and curious way in which the street-cleaning problem was disposed of by the Board of Apportionment last week, make it plain that we are witnessing the full development of the Tammany policy. It is a very much shrewder and more careful policy than it used to be, and shows a much greater respect for public opinion than in old times. It has been greatly helped by the Fair project, which has done a good deal to turn public attention away from Mayor Grant's administration of the real affairs of the city, by the bungle of the electric-lighting enterprise under the auspices of the absurd Commission imposed on Mayor Grace, and by the blunder of Mayor Hewitt and the County Democracy in the election of Colonel Fellows to the District Attorneyship. All these things, and others like them, have prepared the public to treat Tammany with a consideration which nobody who remembers its last term of municipal office, expected to see before the close of the century at least. It has received this, too, in spite of several conclusive marks of indifference to the best interests of the city. One was the ouster of Mr. Bayles from the Presidency of the Board of Health; another was the appointment of Mr. Clark to the Corporation Counselship; another was the change in the chief examinership of the Civil-Service Boards; another still was the change made in the Excise Board in the interest of the liquor-dealers. All these were distinctly retrogressive steps, intended to undo, and actually undoing, the work of reform wrought by Mayors Grace and Hewitt. The way in which the street-cleaning problem has been disposed of is as good an illustration as one could desire of the way in which the Tammany régime approaches the real municipal questions. The condition of the streets of the city stands in the very front rank of these questions. The work of the Street-Cleaning Commissioner is clearly defined by law. It is in the power of the Board of Apportionment to allow him as much money as may be necessary for the purpose of doing this work, and it is the duty of the Mayor to see that he does it. Not only has no attempt been made to see that he does it, but the Mayor has declared openly that he knows nothing about the matter. His present attitude leaves him open to the suspicion that he is not much concerned about the matter as long as a certain number of good Tammany voters draw regular pay as street-cleaners from the city treasury; and the abolition of the contract system gives color to this suspicion.

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POLITICAL TREND OF YOUNG VOTERS.

MR. CLEVELAND'S recent observation, to the effect that the enterprising and thoughtful young men of the country are turning to the Democratic rather than to the Republican party, is, as might have been expected, warmly disapproved of by the Republican press. The *Tribune* professes to doubt if he "conceived his words in truth and soberness," and expresses its belief that he is mistaken. As proof that he is mistaken, the *Tribune* gives two, and only two, reasons for thinking that young men cannot be attracted to the Democratic party. The first is Gov. Hill of New York, and the anti-reform attitude into which his leadership has conducted the Democratic party of the State. The second is free trade, which it declares to be the last analysis of tariff reform. Both these it regards as calculated to repel from the Democratic party all young men who are in the best sense enterprising and thoughtful.

It is noticeable that the chief organ of the party contents itself with stating the objectionable attributes, as it sees them, of the Democratic party, and does not mention any attractive attributes of the Republican party. Its statement of the former may properly be taken as the strongest that can be made, and as such is an interesting subject for analysis. So far as Gov. Hill is concerned, no one can question that he is a repelling influence of considerable force. He has unquestionably prevented many voters, both young and old, from leaving the Republican party by serving as a bugaboo of Democratic depravity. We are not disposed to underestimate in the slightest degree the harmful influence which he has exerted in this way. But when all is said that can be said on this point, the fact remains that Gov. Hill is an anomaly in his party. He has no following outside the State of New York, and his ascendency here is accidental, and will in all probability come to an end with his present term as Governor in 1891. In other parts of the country his party is unanimous in favor of the chief reform which he opposes, that of our election methods, and in this State an overwhelming majority of it is opposed to his attitude. He undoubtedly has control of the party's machinery, but he does not represent its best judgment or most advanced opinion. He may serve to frighten away some young voters hereabouts, but has very little effect of that kind in the country at large.

When we come to the *Tribune's* second bugaboo, that of free trade, we are inclined to the opinion that even the *Tribune* itself is aware of the fact that this has seen its best days. Our contemporary admits that "hundreds of young men leave college every year imbued with free-trade ideas," but declares that "very many of them, just as soon as they are confronted with a condition and not a theory, become protectionists." That depends upon the condition, and he is a very careless observer who has not discovered that the condition which confronts many of the young men who are manufacturers to-day is a very different one from what it was a few years ago. All through New England there are young manufacturers who are confronted with a condition of ruin to the business which they have inherited from their fathers unless they can break down the protection system sufficiently to secure free raw materials. The demands for free wool, free coal, and free iron come from these young men. They have discovered that their fathers, relying too implicitly upon the support of a high tariff, have not kept up with the rest of the world in regard to improved machinery and other methods for cheapening and bettering production. They find themselves with old mills filled with worn and antiquated machinery fit only to produce goods which the world no longer wants. To rebuild and refurnish the mills, to start on a par with other manufacturers and to keep going after they have started, they must have cheaper raw materials and a wider market in which to sell. It does not alter the convictions of the young men thus confronted to hold "Dave" Hill up before them, or to call them free-traders. They are fighting for existence, and they will vote with the party that favors the principles which are most likely to give them what they seek.

As for the young men who are not directly or indirectly interested in manufacturing, and who have come out of college "imbued with free-trade ideas," there are few of them who become protectionists. The young men of the country are mainly of the salaried class, and small-salaried at that. These are beginning to realize the tax which a high tariff levies upon them, in the item of clothing especially, and to a less degree in the other necessaries of life. The free-trade ideas which they have brought from college are only a part of those with which they were "imbued" there concerning the proper functions of popular government and their own duties as American citizens. They were taught high ideals in politics, taught respect for learning and experience, taught to look up to the scholars and thinkers of their own and other lands for guidance.

Now, what does the Republican party of to-day offer to the young men who have come from our schools and colleges with such ideals? In the first place, it offers them the spectacle of a President who came into office under the most solemn personal and party pledges to conduct his Administration upon reform lines, and who has broken every one of them in a more brazen manner than any previous President has ever done. It offers them an Administration conducted upon sordid business principles, with rejected and disgraced political bosses in charge of the distribution of public offices; with a shopkeeper, who was given his place because he raised a large sum of money for campaign purposes, in a Cabinet position which he is using for advertising purposes for his wares; with a Republican press whose principal editors have been muzzled by appointments by the President to public office, excusing and defending the President in all that he does, including the appointment of his relatives to office, and at the same time denouncing the college presidents and professors and other intellectual leaders of the country as "theorists," "visionaries," "humbugs," "free-traders," and "Democrats." Does all this constitute a magnet for "enterprising and thoughtful young men"? Are they going to be scared by the names of "free-trader" and "Democrat" when they hear the men whom they have been taught to honor above all others denounced as such? Are they going to be made to believe that the Republican party is a better party than the Democratic after this demonstration? What influence will it have with them to say, after the conduct of the Harrison Administration, that the country can obtain more reforms and a purer and abler public service under a Republican than under a Democratic President?

COMMERCIAL RETALIATION.

THE last number of *Bradstreet's* contains the outlines of a correspondence between Mr. Denison B. Smith, Secretary of the Toledo Board of Trade, and Secretary Blaine, touching the exclusion of American pork from France and Germany, and also the high rates of duty imposed by those and other countries of the continent of Europe on wheat and flour. The suggestion is made by Mr. Smith that retaliatory steps ought to be taken by the United States, and that one such step might be easily taken by the prohibition of French and German wines and other articles "not actually indispensable to our people." The reply of the State Department is given in these words:

> "I desire to assure you that this Department has used and is earnestly using all proper diplomatic means to effect the withdrawal of the German and French prohibitions. The ultimate questions of retaliation are for Congress to consider, giving serious weight to the problem of embarking on a policy of reprisals the logical consequences of which are not readily to be foreseen or limited."

It is now ten years since Germany began to discriminate against American pork. It is nearly that length of time since our Minister at Berlin got himself into hot water diplomatically by writing a confidential letter, which unluckily found its way into the newspapers, saying that the exclusion of American pork was a device to protect German industry rather than German health. From the time that Minister Sargent's letter appeared to the present, it has been a cardinal doctrine on this side of the Atlantic that the exclusion was an economical and not a sanitary measure, and that the same was true of the like measure adopted by France. There has been hardly any concealment in the latter country. The right of every producer to prey upon every consumer, and to be preyed upon in turn, is an article of faith in France, like transubstantiation; but it is not for us to challenge comparisons upon that point. If the French peasants and pork-butchers want to have the American article excluded, they would be much surprised at any opposition to so reasonable a demand. Very likely they would take the same ground that the Ohio shepherds have taken regarding wool, viz., that if their demand is not complied with, they will smash the whole system. Such a threat would be apt to bring any ministry to terms.

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The subject might seem to divide itself into two parts, one relating to the absolute exclusion of our pork and the other relating to the excessive duties on our grain. But such a distinction would be unprofitable. A duty of 100 per cent. would suffice for all the purposes of exclusion. If France and Germany should ask us whether a duty of 100 per cent. on pork would suit us, we should say no, if we told the truth. Yet we have duties exceeding 100 per cent. on many articles of French and German manufacture. If it be said that it is invidious to treat our pork differently from other people's, we must still acknowledge that this is not the gravamen of our complaint, since, if France and Germany should respond by excluding other people's pork also, we should be no better satisfied than we are now. It would cost them very little to extend the exclusion to other countries, since it is only our competition that their pork-producers fear. Why, then, do they not do so? Simply because the act would expose as a sham the former pretence that our pork is diseased while other people's is not.

When we come to the high duties on cereals maintained by France, Germany, and Portugal, and which are likely to be adopted by Spain, the less we say about retaliation the better. Nobody can beat us at that game. In fact, we retaliated before they did. We had a duty of twenty cents per bushel on wheat when Germany had no duty at all. We have a tax of fifteen cents per bushel on potatoes now, while Germany admits them free. We have rather prided ourselves on giving the farmer his full measure of protection, and he has believed until lately that it was the acme of human wisdom to pay two prices for what he buys, without any chance to recoup himself on what he sells.

Now he discovers that other countries have learned the trick. There can be no doubt that the prices of our grains and our meats have been seriously depressed by the protective legislation and the protective decrees of foreign countries. The action taken by the Farmers' Alliance at St. Louis the other day and the letter of Mr. Denison Smith equally attest this fact. But is retaliation likely to yield any satisfactory result? Seeing that we "retaliated" fifteen or twenty years before France and Germany did, that we changed our commercial policy from low tariff to high tariff at a time when they were changing from high to low, that we really led the way to the slough of commercial restrictions in which all three countries now find themselves, would it not be the wisest course for us to lead the way back, instead of plunging in deeper by excluding French and German wines and other articles "not actually indispensable to our people"? Will a hair of the same dog cure the bite? We robbed Peter to pay Paul when we adopted the Morrill tariff. Will it help matters to repeat the operation on a larger scale? Why should the buyers of French and German wines be punished? What have they done that they should be selected for chastisement? They have contributed nothing to the embroilment between the three countries. Nor can it be shown that vicarious punishment inflicted upon them would cause France and Germany to change their policy.

On the other hand, there is good reason to believe that they would follow us in steps towards greater freedom of trade if they should see us moving in that direction. It was freely predicted by German publicists last year that if Mr. Cleveland were reëlected, the protection policy of Germany would receive a mortal blow; the example of a liberal commercial policy in the United States could not be resisted. German industry is staggering under the tariff, and German workmen are on the point of revolt against the high prices of food which the tariff has caused. German exports of manufactured goods declined 10 per cent. last year in the face of an increase of English exports, and this fact is now a subject of much agitation among the commercial bodies of the empire. It needs only a little pushing to topple over the protection system which Bismarck has reared. The one thing which would strengthen that tottering structure would be "retaliation" on the part of the United States. The Germans are a high-spirited people. Anything which should appeal to their pride and pugnacity would play into the hands of the land-owning aristocracy, for whose benefit the duties on food products are maintained. The thing which they could not long resist would be a policy of liberality and commercial conciliation on our part.

MR. WINDOM'S HUE AND CRY.

THE comments made in Secretary Windom's annual report on custom-house frauds are so diffuse, and so dispersed over the long document, that correct appreciation and concise criticism of them are difficult. Early in those comments is this statement:

"Foreign manufacturers are compelled to maintain their extensive establishments in order to manufacture at the minimum cost, and as this is the only country that will buy more than is needed for present demand, it becomes, at such times, the dumping ground for all manufacturing Europe. For a long time past a considerable proportion, at least of articles of certain lines of importations, has been of this class. They have been sold here below, in fact without regard to, the cost of production, the manufacturers looking to their own and foreign markets, which they control, for their profit."

It was not intended thereby, as we assume, to complain that our consumers are thus enabled to buy cheaply what they require, but to show that by such a process tariff taxes are lessened, and our manufacturers exposed to more severe foreign competition. Further on there is a complaint like that made by Secretary Fairchild, that foreign manufacturers, following now the general course everywhere, at home and abroad, send their goods and wares to the great markets on consignment to their agents in those markets. That course of business we cannot expect to stop. Our customs law has, however, attempted a remedy of what Secretary Windom intimates is an evil, but that remedy is not enforced. Any one can see what the attempted remedy is by glancing at the last sentence of section 2900 of the Revised Statutes, which prevents assessing of duty on less than the *invoice* value, and by glancing at a clause in section 2854, which declares that a manufacturer must invoice at "the actual market value at the *time* and place" of manufacture. If that law were executed, Mr. Windom's complaints should not exist. Our consumers of imported goods pay nearly a million a year to support consuls to enforce the invoice laws, but their efforts are useless. They really do not make any efforts worth mentioning. A column or two further on in his report the Secretary urges a repeal of an invoice requirement, when he says:

"The declaration should state that the invoice represents the actual market value of the merchandise in the principal markets of the country whence exported, instead of the time and place when and where procured or manufactured, as now required by the statute, so that the declaration may conform to the legal basis of appraisement."

That will permit the "dumping" manufacturer to do legally what the Secretary complains of, and it will modify section 2854. As the law now is, the tax must be levied on the higher invoice value, no matter how much less value the appraiser may report as dutiable value at *time of shipment*.

A little more detail and a reference to the Revised Statutes are needed to clear up, for the average Congressman, this mediæval business.

If the fair market value of a yard of silk, woven at Lyons, was, on the day of the completed weaving, 30 francs, but if, a year afterwards, that value had fallen to 20 francs, and the manufacturer then consigned it to New York for sale, he must (section 2854) put 30 (not 20) francs in the invoice as the invoice value. If the manufacturer inserts 20 instead of 30, the consul is bound to refuse to certify the invoice as correct, but he does not refuse. When the consignee enters the silk at New York, he must (section 2785) present the invoice which has been certified by the consul as a true invoice; he must, in his entry-paper, declare the value contained in the invoice; he can increase that value (never diminish it) only on one contingency (section 2900), which is when he believes the dutiable value greater than the invoice value, and then he may add on the entry to make market value, and avoid a penalty of 20 per cent. on the appraised value (confiscation of one-fifth), in addition to the ordinary tax, if the appraisement exceeds the entry by ten per cent. or more. On the other hand, the appraising officer must ascertain and report (section 2902) to the Collector the true market value at *time* of shipment (not of manufacture), which may be 20 (not 30) francs, but yet the Collector must (section 2900) levy duty on not less than 30 francs. We do not vindicate that law, but any Congressman can see that, if it were executed, foreign manufacturers could not dump their rubbish on us at rubbish valuations. It is not executed, because it cannot be by such consular and appraising officers as are now in the Treasury service. They might as well try to swim across the Atlantic. Our consuls know next to nothing of values; their verifications of invoices are perfunctory; our appraising officers blindly

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follow the invoice values unless a rival importer or a manufacturer "puts up a job." But yet the protectionists fear that if they "let up" by the least bit, and alleviate the barbaric stringency of the laws, the protective system will come down with a run.

A long distance further on, Mr. Windom's report deals with what the author describes as "the *alarming* prevalence of undervaluation." Of course undervaluation abounds. It always has and always will under such a preposterous tariff as ours. Undervaluation is the rule and not the exception. Mr. Windom superficially endeavors to fasten the greater part of the evil on consigning manufacturers and on New York. He endorses this statement:

"During the last year the proportion of the importations for the whole country which are free of duty, or which pay purely specific rates, the latter including such articles of common use as salt, soda, tin plates, and glass, entered at New York, ranged variously from 34 to 63 per cent; while of articles subject to high advalorem rates, such as silks, embroideries, laces, leather, gloves, linens, cutlery, ornamental feathers, buttons, trimmings, hats, bonnets, etc., the proportion imported at that port ranged from 76 to 99 per cent., averaging over 85 per cent. of the entire importations of such goods into the United Seates. About 98 per cent. of all the silks imported into the country during the last year were entered at New York, and the average of such importations at that port for the last six years has been above 96 per cent. Fully 90 per cent. of these importations represented consignments on foreign account, and were, as a rule, undervalued."

That is a hit at New York, and takes no account of the fact that heavy and bulky articles are sent in order to save freight to the port nearest to the place of sale, while costly articles come, by the swift ocean greyhounds, to the Empire City and the Empire Market. The consular invoices and the appraisements of goods sent to ports other than the port of New York are quite as defective, and even more defective. Thereupon the Secretary exclaims:

"There is urgent need for radical reform in the system of appraisements. Under the present law it is practically *impossible* to secure uniform and just valuations. The provisions relating to the form of invoices and their consular authentication should be amended so as to give appraising officers in all cases more definite information of the actual transaction which the invoice is claimed to represent than is at present required."

But, excepting what we have mentioned, he does not and cannot suggest a change, safe for him and his party, in the law regulating invoices. As to appraisers, he commends Mr. Manning's plan for making reappraisements wholly by officials, in which a merchant shall not participate. He intimates no other remedy excepting this, which almost takes away one's breath:

"There is now no adequate means afforded by the laws for the *punishment* of fraud in the entry of merchandise. This is attested by the reports of the Secretaries of the Treasury during the last ten years. I concur in their repeated recommendations, that the statutes should be so amended as to enable the Government to obtain the forfeiture of merchandise, or its value, upon proof of false entry, placing upon the claimant the burden of proof to show innocence of fraud in the transaction. The Government is now required to prove affirmatively not only that the goods were falsely entered, but that such entry was made with fraudulent intent, and to obtain such proof is, as a rule, impossible."

When has "punishment" by forfeiture in court been attempted? Not in the port of New York by Secretary Windom. Why not, if he *knows* that custom-house frauds do so abound? "The last ten years," to which he alludes, cover a part of the period since moieties were abolished in 1874—thanks to Senator Bayard's efforts. Collectors do not seize for forfeiture now. They have not the pecuniary inducement which they had before 1874. But that repeal of moieties made no such change as Secretary Windom describes in the law of prosecution for forfeiture in court, or in the rule of presumption. Whoever wrote that part of his report was either profoundly ignorant of the law or intended to mislead Congress. There is law adequate to punish by forfeiture merchandise whose entry is actually tainted by "fraud." The law needs amendment in order to forfeit the *value* if the goods cannot be found. If the goods are in custody, the prosecution must now prove entry on a false value (if that be the charge), and, in addition, "an *actual* intention to defraud the United States" by that false entry. Under the law of 1863, if an entry was "*knowingly*" made by a false paper, the merchandise was forfeitable. An importer was presumed to *know* the law, and which papers the law declared false. If he presented such a paper, his goods were to be forfeited for a false paper intentionally presented, unless he could convince the jury that he presented it innocently or by mistake. The new law requires the prosecution to present facts convincing the jury that the acts were done "with an *actual* intention to defraud."

Why should a tariff law deprive an importer of his property, or consign him to prison, unless the Government has evidence that he had "an actual intention to defraud" the revenue? If Secretary Windom had read carefully Secretary Manning's correspondence with Mr. Justice Blatchford, published in the second volume of the Treasury report for 1885, he could not have blundered as he does. When he declares to Congress that "frauds" abound, does he not intend to say that "actual intention to defraud" abounds?

Mr. Windom and his party are between the hammer and the anvil, the devil and the deep sea. If they keep the preposterous and unconscionable invoice and collection laws on the statute-book, the laws will not and cannot be executed, smugglers and undervaluers more and more cut down dutiable values and customs taxes, and the administration of the custom-houses is more and more the scandal of scandals. But if, on the other hand, the present absurd taxes are maintained, and the monstrous stringency of the customs law alleviated, the customs revenues will be even more reduced—when the deterrent force of punishment is removed.

WAS WALPOLE CORRUPT?

No one who has made a considerable figure in the history of constitutional government has done so much service as an awful example of the evils of corruption as Sir Robert Walpole, who was Prime Minister in England under the First and Second Georges, and is generally acknowledged to have been one of the three greatest Ministers England has ever had, the other two being Pitt and Gladstone. For over a century his mode of managing the House of Commons has figured in innumerable speeches and articles as an illustration of venal government, and one of the cynical saying ascribed to him—"All men have their price"—has probably given comfort to more political knaves and pessimists than any other maxim, motto, or apothegm. (What he really said was, "These men have their price.") Sooner or later, however, all the villains in the human drama find somebody to say a good word for their memory, and Walpole has been lucky enough to find an apologist in Mr. John Morley, who has just published an extremely brilliant biography of him in the "English Statesmen Series."

Mr. Morley takes up the charges against him seriatim. The first and most famous is that Walpole used to buy the votes of members of the House for cash, which he paid without concealment. But this, Mr. Morley says, must be judged "in the light of political history." Shortly before Walpole's day the Secretaryship of State was sold for a few thousand pounds, just as the command of regiments was sold in our own day. Lord North "jobbed public loans"—that is, let in his own friends on "the ground floor"—long after Walpole's day. It was not considered at that time any more discreditable to buy the vote of a member of Parliament than it has been considered until now in England, or than President Arthur considered it, or Quay and Dorsey now consider it, to buy the vote of an elector. Members used to buy their seats in Walpole's day, and owners of rotten boroughs used to sell them, just as our bosses sell judicial and other nominations for "assessments." It probably would have been difficult to persuade a member who had paid heavily for his seat that it was any great harm to sell a vote to the Minister now and then to recoup himself. Mr. Morley, in fact, admits that Walpole did use bribery in one form or another when necessary to get or maintain his majorities, but he adds: "To say with some modern writers that Walpole organized corruption as a system, that he made corruption the normal process of parliamentary government, that he governed by means of an assembly which was saturated with corruption, is to use language enormously in excess of any produceable evidence and of all legitimate inference." A committee of investigation, mostly composed of his political enemies, sat on his career after his fall, and worked over it for ten years, and found no facts to support the allegations of bribery. "Two of the great heads of accusation," says Mr. Morley, "shrank up into miserable dimensions, and the third remained a matter of vague and unsupported inference."

The charge of using corrupt influence on elections Mr. Morley meets by showing that worse things were done by Walpole's successor than by him. Our managers would smile over the charges against Walpole under this head. He promised the Mayor of Weymouth a place in the revenue service in order to have a returning officer of the right

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stripe; he dismissed some Custom-house officers for voting against the Ministry, and he advanced some money for legal proceedings in some boroughs. But then George III. bought boroughs wholesale, and got himself into debt thereby, and Lord North gave Lord Edgecombe fifteen thousand pounds for his boroughs, and Lord Falmouth seven thousand five hundred for his. But this is straining a point, because Mr. Morley has already pleaded that the traffic in boroughs was well established in Walpole's day, and he does not deny that Walpole engaged in it. What he says is, that "he never approached such a scale as this." To know whether this makes any moral difference in Walpole's favor, we must know what the comparative necessities of the two cases were. Had Walpole been as weak a man as North, and needed boroughs as much, he would doubtless have made as large purchases as the exigency called for.

Walpole was also accused of lavish use of the secret-service money which every minister has at his disposal. Mr. Morley says he spent no more of it than his predecessors and successors, and that the condition of foreign affairs was such as to account for his outlay, however large it was, without, in the absence of any direct proof, resorting to the bribery hypothesis. Moreover, if he had corrupted on the scale charged against him, it must have come to light somehow, and it never did. The kind of corruption which Walpole practised openly, without shame or scruple, was the reservation of every bit of the Crown patronage, small and great, for members of his own party, or, in other words, what we call the "spoils system"; but in this, says Mr. Morley, "he acted on the principle that is accepted in the United States, that is not disavowed in France, and that, although disavowed in Great Britain, has not even yet wholly disappeared here." The only case of direct bribery, in fact, proved against Walpole was the payment of £900, in two sums of £500 and £400 respectively, to two members, who required that amount to vote against a motion for an address to George II. asking him to settle £100,000 a year on his detested heir-apparent. The King grumbled a good deal at the amount, but Walpole held that, under the circumstances, the votes were cheap.

It will be seen from all this that Mr. Morley's defence is mainly a plea in extenuation. But he does take Walpole down from his bad eminence, and places him among the common herd of eighteenth-century corruptionists, although he towers above them all in parliamentary skill, in force of character, and in real devotion to the public service.

A CELEBRATED AMERICAN.

A RECENT number of the *Journal du Droit International Privé* contains a discussion especially interesting from various points of view to Americans. The advent of "Buffalo Bill," with his Wild West Show, in France appears to have awakened the attention not only of those merely seeking diversion, but also of lawyers and philanthropists. Aside from his being referred to in the *Journal* as "William le Buffle," he is treated with a degree of serious consideration in keeping with the importance of the legal questions which his appearance raised. The first of these is that of the extent of the protection afforded by the French law to his pseudonym and to his literary and artistic property. This question is discussed under three heads: first, his right to his name; second, to the translations of his works; third, to the scenic arrangement of his exhibitions.

By the French law of July 28, 1824, it was forbidden to put upon any commercial product a name other than that of its fabricator or proprietor, but this protection was accorded to foreigners only in case they were authorized to establish their domicile in France, or belonged to a country with which France had concluded a treaty guaranteeing reciprocity. In 1873 another law was adopted which dispensed with the necessity of conventional reciprocity, and required only actual reciprocity under the law of the foreign country. In 1869, however, there was concluded between the United States and France a convention for the protection of trade-marks, which was regarded as satisfying the conditions of the law of 1824, and in 1881 the Government of the United States adopted a law which was considered as establishing legal reciprocity outside of any diplomatic arrangement. But this legislation applied only to commercial names. The patronymic of a foreigner has always received in France the same protection that the civil law accords to the names of citizens. A pseudonym has been granted a like protection, under the decisions of the courts. It is regarded as property, and may, without the observance of any previous formalities, be defended against appropriation by civil processes.

The literary works of the celebrated American in question consist of two books entitled 'Buffalo Bill's Wild West' and 'Buffalo Bill's Wild West Exhibition.' It is the opinion of the *Journal*, in respect to literary productions published abroad, that in general the foreigner enjoys in France only the protection accorded by the laws of the place of publication, whatever that protection may be, and only for the time that it continues in such place. But in respect to the publications of Buffalo Bill the matter was simplified by the fact that they were translated into French, and the translations printed in Paris and duly entered as French publications. This secured the full protection of the French law for the translations. Another question, however, arose as to the polychromatic representations of life in the Far West with which we are informed that the walls of Paris were covered, to the great distraction of passers-by. These, as artistic productions, enjoy under the French law the same, and only the same, protection as the literary works.

The combination of mimic scenes is regarded in France as a work of intelligence, and, as an intellectual creation, may be the object of appropriation. In such a case it is not necessary to inquire what protection such a representation would receive under the foreign laws. Thus it has been held by the French courts that a ballet composed of national dances of various countries so as to constitute a particular and distinctive combination is a subject of private property, which the laws will secure.

Aside, however, from questions of literary and artistic property, the exhibition of the Wild West Show in Paris provoked a controversy of a most serious and important character. Early in May one of the Indians met with an accident. Profiting by this circumstance, M. Joffrin, a member of the Municipal Council of Paris, at a session of that body held on May 31, invoked the spirit of 1789, and, with the approval of a certain number of his colleagues, offered a resolution to interdict the further representations of the celebrated American. This resolution is so remarkable that the full text should be seen. It is as follows:

> "The Council, considering that the great purpose of the Exposition of 1889 is to celebrate the centenary of 1789; that the Revolution of 1789 was the commencement of the emancipation of humanity, without distinction of sex, nationality, or color; that the Exposition and the fêtes of the centenary cannot, without ignoring that which is the reason for their existence, longer tolerate the odious exhibitions of Buffalo Bill—expresses the opinion that the Government should forthwith take measures to put an end to the exhibition."

This resolution was signed by eight members of the Municipal Council. Its consideration provoked a discussion more than animated. M. Georges Berry, a member of the Council, denounced the resolution as contrary to liberty. M. Joffrin replied in a spirited manner by asking of what liberty M. Berry spoke—whether of the liberty of the negroes who were prisoners? The discussion was continued, with increasing excitement, until M. Joffrin, amid interruptions, pronounced those who opposed his resolution to be ignorant of the facts, and declared that it was a shame, that it was unworthy of Paris and of the Government, to permit such spectacles for the pleasure of the depraved. This declaration produced an uproar during which M. Joffrin was unable to continue his speech. The general opinion of the members of the Council, who energetically disclaimed any ignorance of the character of the exhibition, was, as expressed by M. Dubois, that if the performers of Buffalo Bill were slaves, they were so voluntarily, and not within the letter or spirit of the principles declared in 1789. M. Dubois said that the show was a great attraction in an interesting quarter, and that M. Joffrin could not demand its suppression. The latter, arising to reply, was greeted with new interruptions, which were prolonged against the protests of the President of the Council, until the speaker was compelled to desist from further attempts to continue the debate.

The resolution does not appear even to have been put to a vote. Upon the debate the editor of the *Journal* makes the observation that if their ignorance of European culture did not deprive Red Shirt (*La Chemise Rouge*) and his companions of the pleasure of reading the proceedings of the Municipal Council of Paris, they would probably display a lively astonishment at seeing themselves treated as slaves.

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THE AFRICAN ECLIPSE EXPEDITION—II.

NEARING ST. GEORGE HARBOR,
SIERRA LEONE, Nov. 18, 1889.

AT St. Vincent, in the Cape Verde Islands, some 800 miles off the coast of Senegambia, and in latitude 17° north, I found a small number of people who took a kindly interest in our work, among them Mr. Lloyd, the obliging manager of the Brazilian Submarine Cable Company's offices. Mr. Lloyd has been in the island twelve or fifteen years, and finds it a delightful climate. The residences of the officials are up in the hills, where a dustless air and very even temperature prevail.

From here diverge the three great lines of the South Atlantic cables, northward to Lisbon, eastward to Africa, and southwest to Brazil. The latter lines are nearly equal in length to those between the European and North American Continents. The general offices were well stocked with maps and charts of great value, showing the exact location of the submarine cables at every point in the ocean bed, and the depths at numerous places as well. In the grounds about the Cable Company's offices we found the meridian pier used by officers of the United States Navy some ten years since in determining the long chain of South American longitudes; and, hard by, Mr. Preston set up his instruments, and made a few observations for the magnetic elements. Pendulum-swinging of course requires too much time to be essayed until Loanda is reached.

Here, too, I received the severest damper yet felt, learning of the sad death of Commander Pullen at Bonny only a few hours before. Bonny is at the "corner" in the West Coast, and Commander Pullen was just conducting a series of experiments looking to an exchange of longitude signals with my own party at St. Paul de Loanda so soon as we should arrive there. In boating about the lagoons he was so unfortunate as to fall a victim to the malignant type of malarial fever which prevails in that deadly region. But for his untimely death our eclipse station might have been connected directly with Greenwich, through St. Vincent. As it is, we shall reach Greenwich from St. Paul de Loanda through the roundabout route of the Cape, Mozambique, the Red Sea, the Mediterranean, and trans-European lines.

Mr. Preston, of the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey, who accompanies the Expedition by the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury, has been indefatigable in availing himself of every opportunity afforded by the *Pensacola's* making port for coaling purposes. Fortunately for the progress of his work, if not for the progress of our ship towards the eclipse station, these opportunities have been frequent. First, at Fayal, in the Azores, on November 2 and 3, a complete series of magnetic observations was made, comprising the elements of declination, magnetic dip, and intensity. By the courtesy of Mr. Dabney, the American Consul at Horta, these observations were carried on in a secluded portion of the grounds surrounding the consulate. At St. Vincent, in the Cape Verde Islands, our stay being of uncertain length, the observations for magnetic declination were necessarily abridged, but the other two elements were satisfactorily determined.

Mr. Brown, the naturalist, has made good use of his opportunities at Horta and at St. Vincent. At the former a considerable collection of fish, shells, star-fish, and sea-urchins was obtained, some very beautiful specimens of the latter being brought away in their native rocks by chipping off the pieces with large chisels. Lava and minerals were also collected; and, fortunately for the expedition, I fell in with Mr. Howe, who generously gave his time to the naturalists, and materially assisted in the collections of shells, plants, and insects. At St. Vincent large amounts of fish, shells, lobsters, and shell-fish were procured, as well as fine specimens of sea-urchins, also birds and plants in abundance. As we near the coast of Africa, porpoises and flying-fish are encountered in large numbers; but the time is too short to delay the vessel for the capture of any specimens, even if it were supposed that they might be of use. Some curious observations, thought to be new, have been made on the caudal propulsion of the flying-fish while sustaining itself above the water. Some eight miles to the south of St. Iago, while the engines of the *Pensacola* were undergoing repair and the vessel was in a dead calm, Lieutenant Nichols shot from the stern a beautiful gannet, which, when brought aboard, was found to present some interesting peculiarities.

Mr. Orr, the anthropologist from Clark University, has been prosecuting his researches among the entire company on board, and it is doubtful whether either the captain of our good ship or the chief of the expedition will escape his callipers. Having begun low down, however, among the coal-heavers and others, he finds the ship's crew extraordinarily well developed. As might be expected, being picked men, their measures place them well above the ordinary standards. A large number of different races are represented, from the Aspinwall Indian to the Dane and Norwegian. After landing at St. Vincent and returning to the ship, the anthropologist was prepared to make a generalization, which seems indisputable, that the women of the Island are greatly superior to the men in physique, if not in intellect. One is prepared for easy assent to this conclusion if he stands on the wharf and observes the knots of masculine loafers, while women carriers are doing the most, if not all, of the work, bearing on their heads and sturdy necks not only loads of coals and fruits, but even heavy burdens of lumber.

No member of the expedition is happier or doing better work, or more of it, than Prof. Abbe, the meteorologist. In a former letter I gave, I believe, some account of special observations made by himself and his corps of assistants, drawn from the younger officers of the *Pensacola*. No repetition of the waterspout has yet exhibited itself, and the opportunity of a dozen or two waterspouts in a single morning must be indeed a rare one. Some of the instantaneous photographs of those interesting phenomena observed on the morning of October 22 have, on development, been found to show some rather remarkable characteristics which the pencil sketches failed to bring out.

The philologist and interpreter of the expedition, M. Heli Chatelain, is faithfully at work, day by day, on his 'Grundzüge des Ki-mbundu,' in which the elements of this language are compared with those of Kixi-kongo, Luba, Lunda, N-mbundu, Oshi-ndonga, and Otyiherero. Its conclusion will enable one to form an idea of the mutual relations of the chief languages of Central West Africa.

Meanwhile, it is by no means forgotten that the total eclipse of the sun the 22d of December forms our main errand. By day the preparation of the instruments goes steadily on, and a variety of optic experiments by night. In the middle of the last week the pneumatic chronograph apparatus was got together, and several instruments, spectroscopic, polariscopic, and other, were coupled to it. Although this was the first occasion in which the automatic instruments had been tried, everything operated perfectly, photographic plates changing in precise routine, and exposing shutters opening and closing at appointed instants, while the time of every movement was recorded with entire accuracy to a small fraction of a second.

The publication of the bulletin of the expedition is making slow but certain progress on board the *Pensacola*. As may be imagined, the resources of our printing-office are in no wise vast; but Leaflet No. 6 is now on the press, and may be ready for issue from Saint George. As I write, the far-famed mountains of Sierra Leone are already on the horizon, genuinely our first glimpse of the Dark Continent.

DAVID P. TODD.

GWEEDORE.

DUBLIN, December 7, 1889.

THE circumstances surrounding the tragic end of District Inspector Martin at Gweedore early in the year, and the legal proceedings consequent on it, concluded only a few days ago, are singularly suggestive regarding the relations subsisting between the people and the Government in Ireland. It has come to this, that our rulers must have not only their own reporters to note all that is said at public meetings, but their own vehicles to convey them, their own magistrates and juries to try prisoners, their own jails, and their own wardens, and they must also have their own witnesses. In political matters and agrarian contentions the people cannot or will not testify against their own class, and their evidence in its favor is not always reliable. The police are kept more and more distinct from their countrymen as "a chosen generation, a peculiar people," whose advancement depends on the extent to which they can justify their superiors by incriminating the Nationalists. Their position is essentially wrong, and great are the temptations to which they are exposed in the disturbed districts. Armed with deadliest weapons, they are pitted against the people, aware that if they fall, no one will befriend or witness for them, and if they baton or shoot down, whatever public opinion or coroner's juries may say, they will be exonerated.

Gweedore is a desolate region in Donegal, between the Atlantic and the slopes of Errigal and Muckish, fringed with islands still wilder, from Tory on the north to Aran (not *Arran* of Galway) on the south. Doubtless many readers of the *Nation* who have approached Great Britain "north-about" have seen it, looking probably green and picturesque and refreshing enough, after a voyage; but, in reality, it is a miserable spot from which to wring a living. It has been inhabited only as the people have, by confiscations and evictions, been driven from the richer districts. There the land war has fiercely raged. As the people took up and improved little pieces of bog, their rents have been raised and raised, while old rights of pasturage and commonage were withdrawn. The land could not possibly produce the rents. They came largely from America, and from the earnings of laborers who, from the west especially, annually flock over to the hay and corn-harvesting in England and Scotland. Aggravating enough these poor tenants must be at times, especially latterly, since taking up the position that rent should depend upon the capacity of their holdings to leave a margin after affording themselves a maintenance. The feeling uppermost in my mind

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when I visited the place some years ago, and now read descriptions of the wretched hovels from which the people are being evicted, is that no one ought to live under such conditions as satisfy them. Thus, however, they are content to exist, and their poverty is no excuse for wringing from them their last penny.

If we agree with Sir Walter Scott, that "everything is as moonshine compared with the education of the heart," and if we judge by the subsequent career at home and abroad of many born amid such circumstances, these poor tenants are superior to many apparently higher in the social scale. The judges who reduced their rents 33 per cent. in 1885 said: "They were admittedly an industrious people; and we, having heard the evidence very fully, came to the conclusion that they were an honest and veracious people." I myself was never more struck with the industry of a population than in Gweedore; the women even as they walked along the roads knitted, and for this knitting they were receiving at the rate of only six cents a pair for long stockings. The inquirer as to the highest civilization in the north of Ireland may well feel puzzled. Judging by neatness and cleanliness, trim gardens, white-washed houses and shining windows, the palm must be given to the Protestants; judging by morality and "education of the heart," it must be unhesitatingly awarded to the Papists so despised by them.

Father James McFadden has been for many years parish priest of Gweedore. He has been thus well described by a recent writer: "Gray-eyed, the strong, bull-dog face, lit up, like the tops of the Donegal Mountains in fair weather, by a smile that is sunshine itself." He has been the earthly Providence of his flock. In times of distress he has collected funds for them from far and wide. His fatherly attitude towards them was strikingly shown after a disaster that occurred in 1880, when a waterspout, breaking up in the mountains while he was celebrating mass, wrecked his church and drowned five of his congregation. He has been incessant in his efforts to establish markets for the small manufactures of the district. He hesitated long before leading his people into the land contests, but has stood closely by them ever since entering upon it. Last year he served six months' imprisonment for his utterances. I have before me a bulky pamphlet which he published after his release in justification of his course, giving a full history of 'The Present and the Past of the Agrarian Struggle in Gweedore.'

Last January another warrant was out against him for something he had said. For some days he evidently avoided arrest. It was well known that he was at home on the evening of Saturday, February 2. Next morning he openly walked to chapel, said mass to a smaller congregation than usual, and was returning home in his priestly robes of office through the chapel grounds when, in the midst of the dispersing congregation, he was arrested by District-Inspector Martin and seven constables. The Inspector drew his sword and brandished it over the head of the priest, down whose face blood was seen to flow (he having been in fact struck by a stone aimed at his arresters). A "wail" arose from the women in the crowd, and those persons below in the chapel-yard who either could not see what was happening or could see only partially, made a furious rush up the steps; there were some pieces of broken paling at hand, and, before Father McFadden could realize what was happening, the District Inspector was a corpse. It has never been suggested that the priest either by word or sign prompted the attack. A few days after the occurrence, Mr. Morley well said at Portsmouth:

"Let us condemn, for condemn we must, but let us understand. The circumstances of the Gweedore catastrophe are to be the subject of judicial proceedings, and therefore I will speak with great reserve; but I have a right to remark upon the infatuation of the authorities on that occasion. I dare say there are gentlemen on the platform who have been to Gweedore. It is one of the rudest and wildest spots in her Majesty's dominions. I doubt if there is in any part of her Majesty's dominions a people living a harder life than the people of Gweedore. They have got little patches of what is called soil, but which is really transported by their own hands on to a foundation of granite, and the average rent of the holdings in Gweedore is between 20s. and 35s. a year. You may therefore guess how wild, how rude, and how poor they are. They have only one friend—their priest. I am not going into the merits—it would be most unbecoming to go into the merits—of what happened the other day, but was there any occasion for arresting this priest? Now I'll put a parallel case to you. There is in Belfast a very popular clergyman of great authority and influence among the Protestants of that great city. I refer to Dr. Kane. He is also, I understand, high in position in the ranks of the Orangemen. I am obliged to use his name for the purpose of giving point to my argument. But supposing, in the excited days of 1886, Dr. Kane had made an incendiary speech, and, when I was Chief Secretary, I had found it to be the business of the Executive to arrest Dr. Kane: should I not have been insane if I had ordered or sanctioned the arrest of this popular clergyman upon the steps of Christ Church in Belfast, as he was coming out from performing his sacred functions, in the presence of a crowd of excited and enthusiastic Orangemen?"

The original charge against Father McFadden was at once dropped, and he was indicted for murder! The magnates of the county shortly met in Grand Jury and awarded £4,000 to the widow of the murdered man, to be levied off the district; overpowering forces of military and police were drafted into the place. Father McFadden's house and premises were ransacked from garret to barn. Cordons were stretched across the country, and every sheiling and mountain-hollow examined. Guards occupied the mountain passes, and the inhabitants were obliged to have passports for permission to walk in safety along the highways. Gunboats cruised among the islands, whose people were included in the general body search. Gangs of handcuffed peasants were driven into boats and spent the night on the open deck of a gunboat, tossing in a heavy sea, and exposed to hail-storms. Father McFadden and a number of accused were hurried to Derry Jail, some forty miles away. The prisoners were gratuitously subjected to severe hardships. Take the after evidence of one of them:

"That day we were driven on outside cars, in snow and cold and storm, a distance of thirty miles to Letterkenny. Each had his hands manacled across in front of him. I had only my waistcoat and a guernsey shirt. I never felt so cold as I did that day. I thought I had some trials of great cold gathering seaweed from the waves in frost and snow, but I never felt anything to compare with my sufferings from cold that day."

They were taken on one remand back to Gweedore, and on seven or eight occasions to Letterkenny. Upon each remand the magistrates easily gave in to another, on the assurance of the prosecuting constabulary officer "that, if further time were granted, he would be able to produce evidence against the reverend gentleman." After Father McFadden had been two months in close confinement, the charge against him was modified to conspiracy, and he was released on bail. In his absence, during these proceedings, evictions on the Olphert Gweedore estate were renewed, leading to the imprisonment of Mr. Conybeare, M. P., and others.

Twenty-three peasants were included with the priest in the capital charge, and all were returned for trial. Some of the police evidence was curious. With the exception of one, no policeman knew all the prisoners even by sight. Some were ignorant of the names and appearance of them all. One constable, at a critical point in the investigations, was ordered out of court for drunkenness. Another identified a man whom he declared he had seen 300 yards away on February 3, some days afterwards, "by the cut of his clothes." The chief witness, who identified fifteen in all, whom he had never seen before, failed to recognize one when their places in the dock were altered, and, after declaring he could identify no more than he saw in the dock, identified two others.

The prisoners were returned for trial in April. The state of doubt in which even the authorities were at this time regarding their guilt is shown by a telegram in cipher, intercepted and deciphered by the Nationalists, sent the following month from one of the officials in Dublin to another at Gweedore: "Met Ross [Crown Prosecutor], who hopes detectives may be left at Gweedore to try catch actual murderer of Martin."

Conviction of any one in the district under ordinary processes of law was most unlikely. The Crown exercised its right and changed the venue to a (for Ireland) notoriously Conservative district, the Queen's County, and at Maryboro', last October, 200 miles by road and rail from their homes, appeared a melancholy procession of about 150 prisoners and witnesses, some of whom could not speak or understand the language of their accusers. The town and court-house were occupied with a large force of military and police.

The prosecution was conducted by the Attorney-General, Peter O'Brien. The first accused, Coll, was put forward. The population of the Queen's County is 73,000, of whom 64,000 are Catholic. There were 217 names on the special jury list, composed of persons occupying premises valued at £100 and over, for the most part differing in race from the mass of the people and opposed to them in political feeling. The full panel was summoned; the prisoners had the right to challenge only twenty; the Crown had unlimited right of ordering to "stand by," so that the jurors were practically selected by the Attorney-General. The jury was "packed." Three hundred years ago Edmund Spenser, in his 'Eudoxus,' suggested that the Government in Irish trials should "Have care to appoynt either most Englishmen, or such Irishmen as were of the soundest judgment and disposition"; and from his days till the present, jury-packing has been one of the principal means employed in Ireland to conceal despotism under constitutional forms. There could hardly be any system more opposed to honesty and fair play or more galling to Catholics, and it is consequently resented by the mass of the people. It is a prominent feature in all trials connected, however remotely, with land or politics. The Attorney-General, O'Brien, is credited with having carried the art to perfection, being known as "Peter the packer." From the panel thus narrowed, as the names were called, every Catholic was rigidly excluded. Yet even by this jury Coll was declared guilty of manslaughter only. Another prisoner, Gallagher, was put forward. The packing went on. Several Catholics protested at being set aside, and two were fined £20 each for their temerity; one was admitted on the jury. The evidence was so weak that there was a disagreement; it

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is now known that several were for acquittal.

The friends of Father McFadden and the prisoners were in high spirits—it was believed the packing was irretrievably damaging the Government in England—when the announcement came that a compromise had been concluded. Seven men, or their counsel for them, pleaded guilty to manslaughter, and were sentenced to from two to seven years' penal servitude; eight to misdemeanor, and received sentences of two to six months. In the course of passing these sentences, the presiding judge made an assertion rather serious for Nationalists engaged in political demonstrations in Ireland: "Every one concerned in resistance to the police in the execution of their lawful duties is responsible in the eye of the law for murder if any of the police are slain in the discharge of their duties." Father McFadden pleaded guilty to the technical charge of obstructing the police, and was liberated on his own recognizance.

This compromise was without doubt a masterly stroke for the Government. I have scarcely ever known a course pursued by the counsel of quasi-political prisoners in Ireland more generally condemned. At first, only that Mr. Healy, M. P., had been one of the counsel, nothing could have prevented popular suspicion and indignation. Subsequent public and private explanations have tended to convince most that, considering the danger of capital convictions, the best course was taken. A change of government might shorten sentences; it could not restore the dead to life. In some of the cases, it is said, there was little or no evidence to rebut what was known would be the testimony of the police. Why, then, it may be asked, did the Government consent to a compromise in these cases? Because the Government were unaware that there was no such rebutting evidence as there had been in the cases of Coll and Gallagher. This absence of evidence where it was wanted increases the probability that the strong alibis set up in Coll and Gallagher's cases were founded on fact. Father McFadden in his own case sacrificed veracity by acknowledging guilt where there was none, to save members of his flock from possible death or long terms of penal servitude. Coll received twelve years. Gallagher was released. The permissibility of some of the police evidence in Coll's case has since been considered on appeal by nine of the judges, and, after two days' argument, the verdict was, on the 20th ult., upheld by five, of whom Justice Gibson, who tried the case, was one; the remaining four judges being for setting it aside.

The second act in the after drama was the sale, accompanied by popular demonstrations of sympathy, last week, of property seized from the protesting Catholic jurors, who, on principle, declined to pay the fines imposed on them. The third and last act is that Mr. Peter O'Brien, perhaps the most generally unpopular man in Ireland, who has been reaping a golden harvest of fees in the direction of the two or three thousand cases under the Coercion Act, has, over the heads of many men of his own side in politics better qualified for the post, been appointed by Mr. Balfour Chief Justice of the Queen's Bench, with a salary of £5,000 per annum and valuable patronage. The Chief Justice is of all the judges supposed to shield the subject from oppression by the Crown. And the appointment was unnecessary. The judiciary of Ireland is out of all proportion compared to the judiciary of England and Wales. Mr. Balfour had power under an act passed by the present Government to transfer the Chief Baron of the Exchequer to the Queen's Bench, thereby amalgamating the two divisions and leading to an ultimate saving of perhaps £20,000 a year. But under present circumstances the Government cannot afford to dispense with any patronage. Before all, the forensic intellect of the country must be bribed. D. B.

THE EPILOGUE OF THE EXPOSITION.

PARIS, December 4, 1889.

BY the side of the great moral manifestation which the Exposition leaves as its chief souvenir, the financial results have been almost overlooked or regarded of secondary importance. Still, if 40,000,000 francs would be considered cheap for all they have realized for the country—a truce when storms were brewing abroad, as well as a flattering occasion for self-assertion; a deterrent against party quarrels at home; an incentive to production and a broad scattering of instruction—a glance at the balance-sheet will show the success to have cost even less.

The budget, it may be remembered, was fixed at forty-three million francs. Seventeen were supplied by the State, eight by the city of Paris, and eighteen by a private society. Three millions were set aside as a reserve fund in case of eventualities. The costs were estimated as follows: 31,650,000 francs for the works (canalization, parks, gardens, and the various buildings), 5,000,000 francs for the labor, 3,350,000 francs for the expenses of the administrative departments—a total of 40,000,000 francs. It is seldom that in public or private enterprises the expenses do not exceed the original estimates. The Exposition marks an exception to the rule, for at the end of January, 1889, when the bulk of the work was done, leaving only the decorative and finishing touches to be given, it was found that the calculations had overestimated by 3,000,000 francs the sum actually needed. Not too intent on economy, the Financial Committee applied nearly a million of the unexpended funds in the work of decoration, which was executed in a manner scarcely anticipated from the outset. This surplus smoothed another difficulty. The State had made a contract with a society of electricians, and saw fit to break it in order to close with more advantageous contractors. By paying a forfeit of 1,800,000 francs it regained its liberty. In addition, there were still left 300,000 or 400,000 francs, which were appropriated to medals, diplomas, and awards.

Now to examine the question of profits proper. Aside from the reserve fund of 3,000,000 francs, which remained untouched, another 3,000,000 francs were added through the Exposition-ticket combination (of which a word will be said later), and 2,000,000 francs coming from the concessions held by lessees of places of amusement and restaurants, cafés, etc., resulting in a total profit of 8,000,000 francs. The most practical judges certainly did not expect this. In face of the rich display, a deficit instead of a profit was predicted.

Long before the completion of the works, the private society which had furnished the 18,000,000 francs, had grown irksome to the State. They were too watchful of their own interests and exacted certain guarantees to insure the return of their money. They insisted on the abolition of free entrances—school-teachers, charitable institutions, even collaborators and exhibitors not excepted. The 2,270,000 "dead-heads" of 1878 were placed "à l'index." In short, they would have robbed the Exposition of its character for liberality. This state of things was bringing untold complications when, two months before the opening, M. Christophle, President of the Crédit-Foncier, made a proposition which enabled the State to get rid of its troublesome partners. The proposition offered 21,500,000 francs in exchange for the privilege of the emission of the Exposition bonds. The State jumped at it, paid off the 18,000,000 francs advanced by the private society, and scored in addition 3,000,000 francs net profit. This transaction was even worth more: it discounted the financial success of the Exposition. The 1,200,000 bonds, with twenty-five entrance tickets attached to each, insured 30,000,000 of paying visitors, whether the tickets were used or not. They were all subscribed for before the end of April.

Before turning from this avalanche of figures, it is well to say in what measure the Crédit-Foncier, the State, and the city of Paris were compensated. The Crédit-Foncier made 3,000,000 francs immediately out of the 30,000,000 francs for which the bonds were sold. Five and a half millions were reserved to make up the premiums of the lottery and reconstitute the capital in seventy-five years—very feasible with time for an accomplice. The State keeps 5,300,000 francs out of the 8,000,000, and profits by a surplus of 13,507,000 francs on the internal revenue and 11,010,200 francs on the monopolies. Its outlay is thereby fully compensated without insisting on the political advantages and the glory. To the city of Paris return 2,700,000 francs of the cash profits, and an excess of 9,000,000 francs taken at the city gates as entrance duty on extra provisions and liquids brought in during the six months.

But the Exposition leaves to the city of Paris a more tangible memento. Instead of returning to sandy desert, the Champ de Mars remains what we have seen it during the great fête—that is to say, the best in it is saved from the pick-axe, and a reinforcement of gardens is to extend over the space occupied by minor galleries and annexes now fast being pulled down. The Municipal Council realized too well the value of the chief buildings to allow them to be done away with like those that figured in other expositions. But the cost and size of those in question are not the only plea for their preservation. A fact that escaped many in the kaleidoscopic show of the summer is generally recognized now that the doors are closed. Iron as a material in combination with terra-cotta and enamel has acquired an æsthetic value. These structures, which had no other pretension than to serve temporary needs and to please, accidentally developed an art principle. For the first time in the "reign of iron" have such vistas been opened in industrial architecture, affording speculation as to future requirements. We do not mean by this that our *fin de siècle* has found a formula equivalent to that of the Maison Carré of Nîmes, or that the word monument is applicable to these first specimens. But as monuments they must be looked upon, for they are the first witnesses that French architecture is in a fair way to make amends for its negativeness since 1789.

It was with great reluctance that the State yielded the Champ de Mars to the city of Paris. This classic field had served so long as a manœuvring ground for the troops of the garrison that it seemed as if the War Office would not be intact without it. But the arrangements are agreeable to all. In place of the Champ de Mars, the city gives an important tract outside the fortifications which will serve as a future manœuvring ground. The new quarter inherited from the Exposition will extend the city westward. If its studied gardens and quincuncial plantations do not prove dangerous rivals to the old Tuileries or

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Champs Élysées, at least everything will be done to draw from the latter the easily led Parisian. Many picturesque plans are rumored, beginning with the creation of an annual fair in Paris, after the pattern of those which have made Leipzig and Nizhni-Novgorod famous. But in reference to this the majority seem to think it attractive in theory alone; that a fair in France is too apt to take on the features of an exposition, and that a yearly commercial gathering would prove a failure here. More simple than this, in the buildings saved from the Exposition will be held those yearly assizes at which the Parisian public becomes in turn a votary of horseflesh, horticulture, fat cattle, and art. In other words, the horse and flower shows will find in Machinery Hall an expanse under glass such as they never had before; a track 300 yards in length by 100 in width for horsemen to gallop over, and later for the disposition of flower-beds. The thirty-yard gallery connected with the central dome, already tested for its sonorous acoustics during Exposition concerts, will be improved, if necessary, and utilized for musical festivals and popular concerts. The Palais des Arts Libéraux is already bespoken by M. Antonin Proust, Director of the Museum of Decorative Arts, which has never had a fitting frame at the Palais de l'Industrie. In addition to this collection there are numerous partial expositions claimed by industry or trade that can find room only with difficulty.

As to the Palais des Beaux-Arts, the first idea was to preserve it as it was during the Exposition, a temple of modern art. But here this great plan of centralization seems to be splitting against a resistance emanating from the Society of Painters themselves. They have many reasons for not wishing to be dislodged from the Champs Élysées: first, the light, which they declare to be unevenly distributed in the Palais des Beaux-Arts; secondly, the distance. This argument has more force than the former, as the light can be regulated. The Society of French Artists, an independent society of a few years' standing, do not paint pictures or model statues for a restricted public of amateurs. Their exhibition has got to be something besides an artistic competition and a market for their produce. It is the source of a fund of which every franc is scrupulously saved to form a capital out of which pensions will be given to the oldest and most distressed combatants, for whom the career did not prove remunerative. If their Salon is moved to the Champ de Mars, they think the question of receipts will be compromised. They have no faith in the neighborhood of the Eiffel tower to send them visitors.

Since the first of December the Tower has been closed to the public, and the flag will not float again until May. There is a plan on foot of adding another story to it—not on the summit, but an intermediary floor above the first platform. This would be devoted to a hotel—modern if ever hotel was—to be patronized not only by delicate tourists in quest of pure air, who prefer this altitude to a sojourn on the top of the Righi, but by lovers of novelty. Hitherto the Tower has not been considered as a place of entertainment, or a spectacle, but strictly as an object on exhibition. A proof of this is the fact that the City Bureau of Aid to the Indigent has not claimed the 9½ per cent. duty which public places of amusement have to pay into its coffers. Charity has lost some sixty thousand francs by this subtle distinction of the law. LE COCQ DE LAUTREPPE.

Correspondence.

DUANE AND BACHE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your paper of November 28 appears an interesting letter, written by Mr. Worthington C. Ford, giving an account of some forged letters of Washington. The latter half of the letter, however, contains so much imaginative history as to make one question whether this letter of Mr. Ford's is not itself a forgery. It is as comprehensive in its assumption of information, and yet as contradictory and minutely inaccurate, as the modern dictionary.

In the next to the last column, Mr. Ford states:

"Duane, an Irish-American, and Bache, a connection of Benjamin Franklin, formed a partnership, and their paper, the *Aurora*, has never been surpassed, if equalled, in its libellous spirit. . . . This precious pair undertook to destroy the influence of Washington, for they feared he might be a Presidential candidate for the third time."

It is then suggested that, for this purpose, "they republished the forged letters," and added others, "but so garbled as to mislead the reader."

Mr. Ford seems to know who did all this, yet he says: "Washington . . . made an effort to discover the perpetrator—an effort that yielded no results."

William Duane, referred to above, was born in New York State. If to have Irish blood in him constituted him an Irish-American, it may be asked, Does any one ever become an American-American? B. F. Bache was undoubtedly "a connection" of Franklin's, being a favorite grandson, who was educated by him abroad as a journalist. He established the paper afterwards known as the *Aurora*, and continued to publish it till his sudden death by yellow fever in 1798. Shortly after this it was published by Col. Duane, who had been writing on it for some time previous.

The utter improbability that "this precious pair" could have formed the plot to destroy Washington's chance for a third term is shown by the fact that William Duane had not been in the country since he was a boy, being brought up abroad, and did not return here until the summer of 1796. He sailed from London May 16, and arrived in New York July 4. After staying in New York some little time, he came to Philadelphia, where he became editor of a paper published by Mr. Bradford, afterwards called the *True American*. Comparing these facts and dates with the time of the publication of Washington's Farewell Address, the middle of September, 1796, we see how imaginative is the theory of partnership, plot, and publication. There was not time enough.

Near the close of the letter it is stated: "The farewell to Washington on his leaving the Presidency, penned by Duane, has become a classic of unseemly libel." If Col. Duane really wrote what is here attributed to him, it could hardly have been published in the *Aurora*, for the following words form the opening of the actual response made by that paper to the Farewell Address, and are a fair sample of its dignified tone: "We are persuaded there is nothing we can say that will fully express the estimation in which his illustrious and important services are held by the citizens of this much-favored country."

A curious fact may be added, in further evidence of the careless literary or publication work of the present day. Col. Duane has been found useful in more ways than one to save trouble to the man of letters. A few years since, when *Harper's Monthly* published an illustrated centennial account of the Evacuation of New York, its author possibly saved himself trouble by inserting the likeness of Wm. Duane, and calling it that of James Duane, the first Mayor after the close of the war. C. W. DUANE.

PHILADELPHIA, December 16, 1889.

JEFFERSON DAVIS IN PIERCE'S CABINET.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read with great interest your obituary notice of Jefferson Davis in the *Nation* of the 12th inst. It is evidently written by one who has studied American politics well and knows how to reason acutely. Whether his theory of the Southern secession in 1861 is entirely correct I will not inquire; but there is a misstatement of fact which seems to indicate that he has overlooked some important facts bearing upon the subject.

"From his [Davis's] return from Mexico," says your writer, "to the outbreak of the Civil War, he was in the Senate of the United States except during the Administration of Franklin Pierce (1853–1857), when he was Secretary of War." As a matter of fact, Jefferson Davis was in private life when Franklin Pierce invited him into his Cabinet. Upon the issue which the Compromise measures of 1850 sought to reconcile, Mississippi came near declaring her separation from the Union. The ultra State's-Rights party offered General Quitman for Governor in 1851. He was opposed by Senator Foote as the Union and Compromise candidate. The canvass was bitter and earnest; Quitman found that he was losing ground, and withdrew, and, at the last moment, Jefferson Davis, as a more prudent statesman of the same stripe, was induced to take his place on the ticket. Davis resigned from the Senate and led the forlorn hope, but in vain. Foote was chosen Governor, and Davis, the defeated candidate, retired to private life. His appointment as Secretary of War marked his new entrance into national politics.

Yours very truly, JAMES SCHOULER.

BOSTON, December 18, 1889.

THE "SOO" CANALS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Referring to the Sault Ste. Marie, Mich., Canal, you say (No. 1274): "Its original dimensions, which had been increased in 1881, proved totally inadequate to accommodate the growing trade, so that a further deepening to twenty feet, and an enlargement of the locks—now the largest in the world—has been undertaken."

The writer of this paragraph does not seem to be fully informed as to the "Soo" canals. The canal of 1855 still retains its "original dimensions," but it is being enlarged now, and will be, when completed, larger than the canal of 1881, built alongside of the old one, and at present "the largest in the world." Moreover, the Canadian Government has begun a canal around the Ste. Marie's rapids, so that when it is completed there will be three canals at Sault Ste. Marie. Through the canal of 1881 (the old one not being open this season) there passed this season, up to November, 7,507,096 tons of freight. F. E. R.

POPE AND PRESIDENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While "C. F. B.'s" suggestion is worthy of attention as to the relative places of the President and Cardinal Taschereau at the

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Catholic University dinner, may they not have been assigned in forgetfulness of the principle that the President, as representing the imperial republic, is officially of imperial rank? Others seem to be confused here. Thus, the Shah is said to have held it impossible to visit this country on the ground that there was here no one of sufficient rank to receive him. And the English, I believe, took umbrage because President Grant declined to receive an invitation to dine with Prince Arthur (or Alfred) at the British Minister's, apparently assuming the superior, instead of admitting the inferior, rank of the Prince. May not the Catholics likewise have confused the intrinsic and the official rank of the President, and, remembering that a cardinal ranks with a mediatized prince (formerly much higher), have forgotten that he ought not to be seated higher than one to whom, for the time being, is due the precedence of an Emperor? C. C. S.

ANDOVER, MASS., December 20, 1889.

THE TRADE OF CHILE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: So much is being said about South American trade that the following figures, taken from the *Ferrocarril* of Santiago, Chile, of November 7, 1889, may be of interest:

The imports of Chile in 1888 amounted to $60,717,698, or $12,086,836 more than in 1887. The imports from Great Britain and Germany always show an increase. The principal imports from Great Britain are steel bars, ungalvanized iron tubes, iron bars; machinery for railways, mines, printing-offices, farms, machine shops; steam engines for various purposes; blooded live stock, refined sugar; thread, cotton, woollen, and silk cloths; ready-made clothing and underwear, iron bedsteads, furniture, carpets, coal, fine earthenware, prepared paints, tea, wines, and liquors. The increase for Great Britain was in 1888 over 1887, 28.77 per cent.; Germany, 20.75 per cent.; France, 12.37 per cent.

The exports increased in 1888 over 1887, $13,757,915. The principal exports are copper, silver, gold, nitrate, guano, hides, and agricultural products. The exports for 1887 and for 1888 were as follows:

	1887.	1888.
Great Britain	$44,977,972	$56,898,407
Germany	5,071,232	4,751,990
France	3,312,223	4,295,055
Peru	1,050,786	2,071,304
United States	2,611,384	2,070,694

The exports to Great Britain increased 26.50 per cent.; the exports to Germany and the United States decreased.

From 1844 to 1888 Chile exported 1,401,701,772 kilogrammes of copper, with a value of $467,394,422.—Truly yours,

RICHARD WARD GREENE.

WORCESTER, MASS., December 17, 1889.

KANSAS AND THE CONFEDERACY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* for December 12 there is a review of a book, 'With Lee in Virginia,' in which it is stated that Kansas joined the South. The reviewer calls this a mistake, but the author may have the belief that Kansas was rightfully part of the Confederacy. In a Confederate geography, published in 1864, all territory south of Nebraska and east of the Rocky Mountains is marked Confederate. I have also a Democratic campaign map which is marked by colors and colored lines to show:

(1.) Area of Rebellious States, population, 8,000,000.

(2.) All the territory held by our armies up to October 4, 1864.

(3.) Territory lost since the removal of Gen. McClellan and the issue of the Emancipation Proclamation.

Kansas is included in the "Area of Rebellious States."

O. H. DARLINGTON.

PITTSBURGH, December 18, 1889.

COLLEGE ATTENDANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A remark having appeared in the *Nation* to the effect that the attendance at colleges and universities is less now in proportion to the numbers of the American people than it was fifty years ago, a number of letters have been written to and been published by you, accounting for this decrease in college attendance and suggesting remedies.

I deny the truth of your premises. I admit that the number of students in the four classes known as Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, and Senior is not as large now, proportionally, as it was in 1839, but that means only that not as many young men between seventeen and twenty-two are studying Latin and Greek and mathematics and physics now as boys between fourteen and eighteen or nineteen did at the earlier period. If you will count only the number of those who pursue liberal studies until they have reached the age at which their fathers and grandfathers usually received the degree of B. A., you will find that the number is greater now than it was at any previous date.

Some of your correspondents are wrestling with the difficulty which college students have who wish to enter, after graduation, the schools of law, medicine, or divinity, and who thus are put off to the age of twenty-five before they are in a position to earn their bread. Hence, it is said, men preparing for the professions cannot afford a college course; and a remedy is sought for. What is it? Germany and the countries sharing in its academic usages answer this question readily. Their philosophic faculties, with a three years' course, should correspond to the Sophomore, Junior, and Senior classes in American first-grade colleges. They do as to the age of students. But he who in Germany proposes to attend lectures in law, divinity, or medicine never studies "philosophy" first. He considers himself fully prepared by the *Gymnasium* for the scientific study of a learned profession, and the training for these professions is then conducted on a scientific plan. Courses for law students in comparative jurisprudence, for medical students in comparative anatomy, for divinity students in Semitic languages and Biblical criticism, are just as good means of higher education as the Greek tragedians or analytical mechanics; with the additional advantage that what a man has learned in the line of his profession, though somewhat ornamental, he will recollect more or less all his life, while what is foreign to his calling he will quickly forget.

What is amiss in the American university is the failure to recognize the professional schools as integral parts of the system. This is the humble opinion of L. N. D.

LOUISVILLE, KY., December 14, 1889.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There is reason to believe that the practice of allowing students to complete a collegiate course without much regard to the traditional four years prevails quite extensively in this State, and doubtless in the West generally. Without taking into account the wisdom of such action, college faculties have in many instances been constrained by those in authority over them either to allow this or submit to a shortening of the course—which might be done either by reducing the number of studies or accepting a poorer quality of work. Most Ohio colleges are more or less closely connected with preparatory departments; and not unfrequently young people from country and village schools present themselves for admission who have a fair knowledge of such subjects as can be taught through the medium of English, but who know nothing of any foreign language. Then, too, the standards of our high schools vary so much that hardly two are alike. Most of them teach no Greek, many no Latin, and a large number do not take their pupils far enough for admission to the Freshman class.

Our colleges and college preparatory schools have thus to deal with students who have all degrees of preparation and various motives, or no motive, for attending school. The young man of fairly mature mind, who voluntarily leaves home to seek an education because he feels the disadvantages of ignorance and appreciates the value of knowledge, will learn much faster than the boy who is sent to school; and of two students equally capable and ambitious, the one who is twenty years old will have considerable advantage over the boy of fourteen or fifteen, if both are put at the same subject. Further, a very large proportion of students in the Western States make their way through college by teaching or on borrowed money. It is, therefore, highly important to the former that they have plenty of time, and to the latter that they be allowed to go as fast as possible. Those are frequently thirty years old at graduation, and sometimes several years older.

I do not believe that the culture element in a course of study has much weight with a large majority of our students. The advantages of knowledge are usually tangible; but that it is better to spend four or five years on a course of study than three is incomprehensible to most young people. When the culture element is not emphasized by home influences, it is liable to receive scant recognition at the hands of young men and women in college. They yield to the pressure to get a diploma as soon as possible in order to take their place in the throng of those who are striving to make their way in the world. Many, perhaps most, of our young men who have wealth and leisure to pursue their studies as slowly as they like, go to Eastern colleges, either because their fathers were educated there, or because the fame of those institutions far overshadows any that we have. Those who seek an education nearer home are no way inferior to the temporary exiles, but their case requires different pedagogical treatment. It may not be absolutely the best, but it is relatively so. I believe if Ohio colleges should insist on four years of uninterrupted attendance on the part of students as a condition of graduation, in addition to the usual three preparatory years, it would decrease the attendance by one-third or more. C. W. S.

OHIO, December, 1889.

COLLEGE GRADUATES AND BUSINESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: For fifteen years I kept an old-fashioned store on the wharf, and traded with the East Indies and South America. I was myself a

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college graduate, and at that time, over fifty years ago, the merchants were averse to receiving graduates, preferring to take youths in their early teens, and insisting upon more or less menial work, such as opening and sweeping out the counting-room, trimming lamps, and, frequently, blacking boots—tasks imposed upon these unpaid apprentices, partly from economy, partly to supple the boy and take the nonsense out of him. We adopted a porter to perform all these chores, and, partly to give them a chance, preferred college graduates to boys a few years younger fresh from school. There was never an instance of bumptiousness or effeminacy; their duties within and without doors were performed more efficiently and more intelligently than by their associates whose minds had not been educed in college; they did not need so long an apprenticeship.

If you will look into the counting-houses of bankers and brokers nowadays, you will find principals and clerks mostly college-bred; you will find most of the factory treasurers, many of their selling agents, many of the railroad presidents college-bred.

Some years ago you informed your readers that in Germany the boys educated in the Gymnasiums for college, while surpassed at first in mathematics by boys educated in what we should call technical schools, eventually outstripped them. So it is in any sort of business; the general training must tell in the proportion as one rises to greater responsibilities and is called upon to solve more abstruse problems. Were I in search of a partner, I would choose not only a college graduate, but also a trained lawyer because of his training, which prepares him to understand any subject presented better than any layman can. Among my friends now past threescore, those who, for any reason, went from school to counting-room have never ceased to regret it, because of their fewer resources outside of business, their real or fancied disabilities, as well as for the loss of comradeship which becomes more and more sad as years roll on. SENEX.

DECEMBER 17, 1889.

CHAIRS OF PEDAGOGY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The letters that have recently appeared in the *Nation* concerning the value of chairs of pedagogy in our large universities have been confined to *à-priori* reasoning. The recent discussions in the East in reference to the same subject had, curiously enough, the same method of treatment. It is quite possible that the older universities in the East are in no need of imitating their vigorous sisters in the West; but one naturally expects allusion to failures, if any can be discovered, in justification of hesitation or disapproval.

It is not necessary, however, to follow the star of empire to obtain arguments from experience. For many years the German universities have had professorships of pedagogy. Since 1876, chairs of the "Theory, History, and Art of Education" have existed in the Universities of St. Andrews and Edinburgh, Scotland. The science of education and the art of teaching are without question best understood in the country where they have longest been taught in the great seats of learning. In Scotland, says an eminent educator, these chairs "have done very much to promote education, . . . not only by raising the work of the schoolmaster in public estimation, but also by attracting attention to education as being not merely a question of machinery for the institution of schools, . . . but a question of principles and methods—in brief, a philosophy."

One of the most prominent and influential of American teachers has lately said that teaching is rarely, if ever, a profession. If not, the sooner it becomes so the better, and nothing will more quickly dignify the teacher's calling than a recognition of it by the great universities. Law and medicine have been transformed into professions by their reception into the homes of the liberal arts.

It is especially the province of the University to educate citizens. Such a duty is the only excuse for the existence of State institutions, at least. College graduates ought to be leaders of the people. They do become our lawmakers, and are the embodiment of the highest public opinion. They should be brought to appreciate educational needs, to have ideas concerning educational methods, to honor the art whose history is "so dreary," to aid understandingly the men whose profession has been sneered at from the time of "Flogging Orbilius" to "Squeers." It is the duty of a university to make known its advancement and to render its achievements generally useful. If methods are improving — and they certainly are — they should be made known, not only by example, but by precept.

Of course it is not only permissible for a State university, it is its bounden duty, to teach how to teach. The pedagogical chair in the University of Michigan ranks second to none in the culture value of the courses offered. It has surpassing influence throughout the State. The University as a State institution would feel bereft of its right hand if it could no longer rely on the assistance of the experienced teacher who teaches the best and latest methods, and keeps the schools throughout the State in sympathetic touch with the head of the system. It is a sign of great advancement that the universities of the Western States have seen and are profiting by the experience of the University of Michigan in this particular. A. C. MCLAUGHLIN.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN, December 7, 1889.

THE TEACHING AT THE UNIVERSITIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Very many who are, or have been, students will quite agree with the remarks of your correspondent in the *Nation* for December 12 on the lack of *teaching* in many of our higher institutions of learning. That this is by no means a new difficulty will be apparent from these words, which I quote from Goethe's Autobiography. Referring to his early experience at Leipzig University, he says:

"Professors, as well as other official personages, cannot all be of the same age; but then the younger ones teach, in fact, only that they may learn, and, if they are men of parts, seek to urge themselves on in advance of their age. Thus they pursue their own education altogether at the expense of their hearers, since these are not instructed in what is really of use to them, but only in what the professor finds it necessary to elaborate for himself. Among the oldest professors, on the contrary, there are many who have been for a long time stationary; they deliver in general only fixed views, and in the details much that time has already condemned as useless and false."

Herein, with his usual acuteness, Goethe not only points out the fact of poor teaching, but he suggests the reason. The truth is, teaching and original investigation are two distinct aims, which run counter to each other. The teacher gives himself up to developing his pupils' minds, the investigator to developing his subject. To accomplish original work in this day of specialism is an absorbing task, so that the investigator is more and more thrown out of sympathy with teaching. Instead of ministering to the student, he will tend to make the student minister to him.

The practical difficulty will be solved by the complete differentiation of the teacher's work from the investigator's. With increasing specialization, the one who contributes to knowledge and the one who stimulates knowing will become different individuals, and each will be kept to his single task.

In some of our most advanced institutions this evolution has already been partly accomplished, and in one I recall a professor, the best specialist in his department in this country, who has not taught a pupil for many years. Lecture-reading and recitation-hearing are but poor substitutes for real teaching, but the specialist will naturally grudge even these. At present there is far better teaching in the public schools than in the universities. Older pupils will, of course, need less help than the younger, but still one never outgrows the need for personal stimulus and direction.

HIRAM M. STANLEY.

LAKE FOREST UNIVERSITY, December 16, 1889.

Notes.

THE late Prof. W. F. Allen's 'History of Rome' is, we are glad to learn, all in type with the exception of the prefatory matter and the indexes, and will be published by Ginn & Co., Boston, a house whose beginnings were intimately associated with Prof. Allen and his brother, Rev. Joseph H. Allen, author of a 'Manual of Latin Grammar,' the first publication of the Messrs. Ginn. At a literary club in Madison of which Prof. Allen was a member, his last paper was on Historic Fiction: and on former occasions his themes had been Freedom of Speech and Thought, the Duke of Milan, Shakspere as a Person, History and Methods of Wood-Engraving, Coriolanus in History and in Shakspere, and the Roman Forum. These well illustrate the scope of his intellect and learning.

The Open Court Publishing Co., Chicago, announces for immediate appearance an authorized translation of Th. Ribot's 'Psychology of Attention.'

The first volume of a new series of brief biographies of English actors, which Mr. William Archer is editing, will appear early in the new year. It will be the life of Macready, by Mr. Archer himself, and will be followed in due season by volumes written by Mr. Joseph Knight, Mr. R. W. Lowe, Mr. Dibdin, and others.

Mr. Thomas G. Shearman of Brooklyn, N. Y., has offered, through the American Economic Association, a prize of $250 for the best essay on State and Local Taxation of Personal Property in the United States. It must not exceed 25,000 words, and must meet certain inquiries which are enumerated in the circular issued regarding the prize by Prof. Richard T. Ely of Baltimore, Secretary of the Association. December 1, 1890, is the date by which the essays must be in the Secretary's hands.

Before the year closes we must mention (and no more now) the completion of the great work edited by Mr. Justin Winsor, the 'Narrative and Critical History of America,' of which the eighth and last volume is before us (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). In addition to the several chapters upon the later history of British, Spanish, and Portuguese America, on which we must defer comment, one remarks

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the section concerning the historical chorography of South America, and the appendix on the manuscript sources of United States history (the Revolutionary in particular), and the comprehensive printed authorities (critically distinguished); a chronological conspectus of American history; and a general index to the eight volumes.

The seventh volume of the Comte de Paris's history of our Civil War has appeared in the French original (Paris: Calmann Lévy). It makes an octavo volume of 795 pages.

The fifth part of Dr. Murray's New English Dictionary is now being distributed (Macmillan & Co.). It carries the vocabulary to *Cling*.

From F. W. Christern we receive prospectuses of two notable undertakings—Auguste Vitu's 'Paris,' with 500 fresh designs, and the facsimile reproduction of the New Testament, Codex Vat., 1209, under the auspices of Pope Leo XIII.

We should have been glad to speak last week of the belated 'Salon de 1889' (Paris: Ludovic Baschet: New York: J. W. Bouton), but if any are now unable to use this beautiful volume for a gift, they can secure it as a record of an exhibition severely tested in comparison with the greater show in the Champ de Mars. M. Paul Mantz furnishes the indulgent but not undiscriminating letter-press, while a large number of canvases and sculptures are illustrated by the best of photogravures, mostly full-page and appropriately tinted. M. Mantz calls this emphatically the "Salon des Femmes," for never have so many women participated; the sex is fairly represented in the selection here given. Moreover, Jeanne d'Arc, a perennial Salon subject, has this year inspired a small host, of which three are shown in the photogravures, all striking, viz.: E. Paupion's painting, and the rival equestrian statues by Paul Dubois (for Reims) and by E. Fremiet (for Paris), between which, to judge only from the engravings, our choice would be in favor of the former. There is a suggestion of a very lovely landscape in the "Alpes Maritimes; Vue prise à Antibes," by H. Harpignies. A certain interest, but not of composition, attaches to the canvas showing the collaboration of the *Journal des Débats*. An index of artists discussed (whether exemplified or not in the illustrations) is a desideratum.

The other day we described a Chicago edition of Ruskin's 'Sesame and Lilies,' and now we have the same work reprinted in the Messrs. Putnam's Knickerbocker Nuggets series, following the third English edition.

The alliterative 'Man and His Maladies,' by Dr. A. E. Bridger of London (Harpers), sets itself forth as a Popular Handbook of Physiology and Domestic Medicine. It does not appear to deliver false doctrine, but where the buying public for such books is or should be found is a mystery. This is a fair type of a class which contains knowledge, but that little knowledge which, if not dangerous, is perfectly unavailing in illness and unsatisfying in health.

The medicine which is not drugging is well exhibited in 'A Text-book of General Therapeutics,' by Dr. W. Hale White (Macmillan), which is the substance of his summer lectures at Guy's Hospital. Its climatology of America is neither accurate nor complete, but as a whole the book is a useful one in fact, and especially as leading students to look beyond dosing for methods of cure.

'The Bacteria in Asiatic Cholera,' by E. Klein, M.D. (Macmillan), is a careful scientific discussion of the causal relation of Koch's famous comma bacillus to epidemic cholera. Dr. Klein, an English investigator of great distinction, leads the opposition to the doctrine that the micro-organism referred to is the cholera cause, and this little volume clearly explains not only his views, but the steps by which he reached them. It has forty illustrations. In the present state of science the ultimate facts in bacteriology must be settled by a few experts of high attainment, but there is every reason to believe that Klein is right and Koch is wrong on this special point. At least, the impartial student must carefully examine Klein before accepting Koch. It may be that this publication has an unfortunate timeliness in view of the impending pandemic of influenza, for other plagues of this kind have been the precursors of cholera itself.

Longmans, Green & Co. publish the latest systematic treatise on 'The Diseases of Children,' by Drs. Ashby and Wright. It is chiefly remarkable as discussing both surgical and medical affections, the book thus traversing all the disabilities of childhood. As thus displayed, the numerous and serious ills that may befall the young leads to wonder that any escape with unimpaired health.

'Mother, Nurse and Infant,' by S. P. Sackett, M.D. (New York: H. Campbell Co.), is a plainly written book of advice for the use of the trio named, with especial reference to the time when the three first meet. It is better than the ordinary books of domestic medicine.

From the Art Lithographic Company we receive a large number of calendars and colored booklets more or less adapted to the season, and of German make. We cannot rate the best of them very highly in comparison with American productions of the same sort. Prof. F. E. Morse's "Musicians' Calendar" (Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co.) is dedicated this year to the musicians of America, a portrait of Prof. J. K. Paine forming part of the decorated background of the pad, whose several leaves contain dates of birth and death, with the usual extracts in prose and verse. E. Scott, 463 Hudson Street, sends us a calendar in the form of a Maltese cross, "Promises for the King's Children," gathered by Mary Lowe Dickinson, and printed upon the daily leaf.

Sun and Shade for December (New York: The Photo-Gravure Co.) is a Christmas number throughout. The seven plates succeeding the symbolical title-plate are copies of famous paintings by Bouguereau, Gérôme, Holman Hunt, Leonardo, etc. Interesting is the announcement that this unique periodical, devoid of letter-press, will hereafter reproduce the leading pictures in the collection of the Metropolitan Art Museum. Other useful features are also to be added, giving a little more unity to the editing.

Mr. Clarence Cook's *Studio* became a weekly on December 7, with the first issue of the fifth volume (new series). Ordinarily an eight-page paper, it will be enlarged on occasion, and on the first Saturday of every month it will give from three to five full-page supplements, consisting of etchings and various forms of photo-engravings. The *Studio* is published at No. 864 Broadway.

The *English Illustrated Magazine* (Macmillan) renews its form with the December number, the first of vol. vii. It now has a larger page with a single column and a much more condensed, yet still clear and comely typography. The most curious article is that on "The Cats of Ancient Egypt," by Prof. W. M. Conway, apropos of the recent discovery of a cat cemetery near Beni-Hasan, about a hundred miles south of Cairo.

That *Nature* (Macmillan) has completed its twentieth year is subject of congratulation on the part of the whole scientific world, and of all who appreciate its services in the ready interchange of observation and opinion. The editors fitly celebrated it on November 7 by reviewing the progress of science in the two decades since their weekly medium was established.

In *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for November Dr. O. Heyfelder gives an extremely interesting account of the present condition of the industries and commerce of the Khanate, in an article entitled "Bokhara on the Threshold of a New Era." In the industries the production of silk still holds the foremost rank, although Russian machinery is gradually driving out the primitive hand-looms of the people. The cultivation of cotton is rapidly increasing, the amount sent to Russia from the port of Usun-Ada, the terminus of the Transcaspian Railway, being 45,723,640 pounds for the first eight months of the present year. This is an increase of 12,347,920 pounds over that of the previous year, while the amount exported in 1887 was only 3,600,000 pounds. The author, who holds an official position in the city of Bokhara, describes briefly carpet-weaving and its allied industries, the leather, wood, and metal work and the pottery of the Bokhariots. Their ornamentation is often rich and strikingly beautiful, especially in their iron-work, but there is no originality in it. It is simply a slavish imitation of forms and designs handed down from time immemorial. This is illustrated by the fact that on some of the metal tiles of the present day there appear distinctly legible the Greek letters of the word βασιλεύς. The commerce is naturally almost wholly absorbed by Russia, the principal article imported from India and Persia being green tea, the only liquid stimulant of the natives. The railway has not destroyed the caravan service, goods requiring no haste in delivery being still transported across the desert on camels. The rates, however, have been greatly diminished by the competition of the railway. It is proposed to extend this road to Tashkend and Ferghana as soon as a route can be decided upon. A Government commission, also, was appointed in October last to examine a project of building a railway from the station Dushak, on the Transcaspian road, to Meshed in Persia.

The seventeenth part of 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas' (B. Westermann & Co.) is given over to Greater and Lesser Britain, its three plates showing the British Isles; Western Australia, Van Diemen's Land, and New Zealand; and a fifth of the United States.

The New York *Ledger*, in the hands of the sons of its founder, is undergoing a change of form and of character, with a praiseworthy striving for a higher order of literary collaboration than has been seen since Edward Everett was a contributor to its columns.

The *Woman's Tribune*, of Beatrice, Nebraska, will be published in Washington during the present session of Congress, with a view to prompting and to watching the action of that body respecting the interests of women.

The Association of the Colleges of Ohio will meet for the twenty-first time at Columbus on December 26-28. President Jordan, of the University of Indiana, will read an address on the "Evolution of the College Curriculum."

"N. D.," writer of a communication to this journal, in its issue of October 31, on "Light Reading for Colored Infants," is requested to send her address to this office.

—On the occasion of the recent jubilee in St. Petersburg, celebrating the fiftieth anniversary of Rubinstein's first public appearance as a musician, a Russian paper published a brief autobiographic sketch of him as a sort of interview. It contains little besides bare

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facts. He relates that already in his eleventh year he made a tour of Europe. "At this age I appeared on the platform everywhere without the slightest embarrassment. I looked upon my concerts as a sort of game, an amusement; *i. e.*, I behaved like a child, as in truth I was." This absence of embarrassment doubtless helps to account for his subsequent successes; for the root of stage fever is vanity, and Rubinstein never was vain, but seems always to have looked upon "ovations" as a bore. This trait has not left him even now, when he has become universally acknowledged as the greatest musician and one of the greatest geniuses that Russia has ever produced. The 18th of November has been hitherto regarded by him as his birthday, but recent research shows that he was born on the 16th. His mother, born in Prussian Silesia, was of a distinctly Jewish type, as a Russian biographer states. She had a thorough musical training, and "to her, as my first music-teacher, I owe very much," says Rubinstein. He had two sisters and three brothers, the youngest of whom, Nicolai, is also well known as a musician and Director of the Conservatory at Moscow. His mother was a very severe teacher, unsparing in the use of the rod, as was customary at that time, "without indulging in any dreams of the future relating to me, as she herself told me afterwards. She simply gave me music-lessons because she herself was musical. Our repertory consisted of Hummel, Herz, Moscheles, Kalkbrenner, Czerny, Diabelli, Clementi, and other lights of the period." Villoing, the most distinguished teacher in Moscow, afterwards continued his education, refusing to receive any money therefor. "He remained my only teacher; after him I never had another music-teacher in my life, excepting later on in the study of the theory of music."

—An amusing story is told of how he handed his opera "Dmitri Donskoi" to the Director of the imperial theatres, who exclaimed, "I do not understand how any one can undertake to write a Russian opera; a Russian opera cannot and must not exist." It is chiefly Rubinstein's merit that different views regarding Russian music are now held in Russian circles; and he brought about this change partly through his own music and playing, partly through his influence as Director of the St. Petersburg Conservatory, which position he first assumed in 1862. Rubinstein never belonged to the "advanced" school, and this new institution gave rise to a rival free conservatory under Cæsar Cui and Borodin, whose motto was Liszt and Wagner. Of Wagner, Rubinstein was always jealous, because he could not help feeling that, but for the Bayreuth master, he himself might have been the greatest opera-composer of the period. As a Russian, moreover, he has no natural sympathy with Germans; yet he frankly writes that "as regards the musical endowments of this or that nation, the Germans are of all peoples the most musical—notwithstanding the current patriotic notion that the devil himself could not outwit the Germans, the prevalent pietism and mysticism, the concentration of all German power in bayonets, and their unity, which cuts culture like a sharp sword. If we place the number of musical persons in Germany at 50 per cent. of the population, then France has only 16 per cent., and England not more than 2 per cent. Notwithstanding the hospitality with which I have been received in England, I say frankly that for music they have neither feeling nor understanding. Music in its proper sense exists only in Germany—music noble and serious." The Russians and Scandinavians, he says, have beautiful popular melodies. "In France there is only one branch of music which prospers and is very much esteemed. True appreciation of the greatest musical productions is to be found only in Germany."

— A well-known antiquary and dealer in antiquities at Venice recently purchased a portrait by Lorenzo Lotto which, when cleaned and identified, proves to be a portrait of Columbus. Compared with the photograph of the Madrid portrait, it appears to have been taken some years later than that, and has the character of individuality which a good portrait always betrays, while there is just enough difference from the accepted portraits to show that it is a different version of the face. In costume it resembles the Madrid picture except that the white shirt which shows at the neck is lower, revealing more of the neck. It has a black mantle, with brown fur, and a scarlet coat. In the right hand he holds a map of the Atlantic countries in the spherical projection, and the left arm rests on a pile of books supporting an hour-glass. A landscape is seen through a window behind him. The portrait is full face. It is signed "Lauren's Lotos f." Lotto was one of the most important of the second-rate painters of the Venetian school, and especially noteworthy as a portraitist. He is generally supposed to have been born about 1480, but Morelli inclines to put his birth at an earlier date on account of the formed style of his picture of St. Jerome in the Louvre, which is dated 1500. He was at first a follower of Bellini, then of Palma the elder, and finally studied Titian as his model. The portrait of Columbus is rather in the vein of the oldest master, and may therefore be put in the first decade of the sixteenth century, as that was the part of his career which is marked by the Bellinesque characteristics. It is possible, but seems hardly probable, that the portrait was painted from life. Lotto travelled a great deal, and may have been in Spain, and indeed may have been sent by the Venetian Republic for the purpose of painting the discoverer, as the Signory showed a very great interest in him. In the preface to the translation of the account of the discovery of America, printed by the Venetian press, Angelo Trevisan, the Secretary of Domenico Pisani, the Venetian Ambassador at Madrid, says, in a letter to the Venetian historian Malipiero, "I was favored to see much of Christopher Columbus, and to strike up a great friendship with him. By his intercession I was enabled to send somebody to Palos, where are sailors and men who have travelled with Columbus, in order to get the map which your Magnificence desires, executed. Here there is only that of Columbus. With regard to the description, it was written by learned men. I copied it, but it is very long. I send at present the translation of the first book to your Magnificence." This translation was published in 1504, the original not till 1511. The Secretary further writes that he has brought the map with him, the embassy having been away nearly a year. While it is possible that Lotto might have accompanied the embassy to Spain, it is more probable that it had brought back a portrait of Columbus, as the custom had then obtained of collecting the portraits of distinguished people, and that this portrait was merely reproduced by the Venetian master.

—It is to be regretted that the exhibit of the United States Signal Service at the Paris Exposition was so meagre as to give no real idea of the scope of its work. The small exhibit in this department of all the foreign countries suffered from being scattered over a large area to such a degree that not only were the instruments difficult to find, but it was almost impossible to compare them with one another. The unsatisfactory representation of the United States in this regard is explained on the ground that the Signal Office had no money, and received no direct encouragement from any one, until urged at the last moment by the French Government. The office, moreover, was busy moving, and its records and instruments were scattered. The instruments shown were a barometer, and the new triple register for wind velocity and direction, and rainfall. There were also charts and other publications of the service. Richard Brothers showed the largest collection of registering meteorological instruments, and next to them came that of Usteri-Reinacher, the successors of Goldschmidt and of Hottinger of Zürich. The English photographic sunshine recorder, or heliograph, of Jordan, has been modified by Dr. Maurer of Zürich, so that there is but a single straight trace for the whole day, instead of the two curved traces representing the morning and afternoon sun, as heretofore. The hair hygrometer of Dr. Koppe deserves special notice, being probably the best of its kind. Two sets of registering apparatus were shown by the Dutch house of H. Olland, of Utrecht. J. Timtchenks exhibited in the Russian section an anemograph, for which he claims the originality of registering by a single symbol upon a revolving drum both the direction and velocity of the wind, although this claim can hardly be sustained entirely. Two registers for a maregraph were exhibited by J. A. Neergaard of Copenhagen. A curious pocket thermometer was shown by H. Pieroni of Athens, the whole thing being contained in a silver coin about the size of a silver dollar, and was sold at thirty francs. Its motor and transmitting mechanism are similar to those of the thermograph manufactured by the Draper Company of New York.

RECENT POETRY.

In advance of Sir Edwin Arnold's recent visit to this country, his publishers issued an edition, in two thick volumes, of his collected poems (Boston: Roberts Bros.). It seems a pity that, if this was to be done, it should not have been of longer planning, for the work is not really a new issue, but simply a binding together of the separate works, not quite uniform as to type and with the original paging—a thing quite exasperating to bibliographers. Yet the book is presentable to the eye, after all—thanks to the general good taste of the house which issues it; and it awakens new wonder as to the varied labors of such a busy man. Not even the kindliness inspired by the passing visit of this most cordial of Englishmen can conceal the fact that he has written too much, especially in the Oriental field; and to turn these pages will bring curiously back to older readers the period when literature was redolent of Moore's "Peris" and Southey's "blessed Glendoveers." The scholarship of the present interpreter of the far East is doubtless more accurate than theirs, and perhaps his poetic quality firmer; but it is certain that earlier bards, using these pretty Oriental names as counters, have played for fame and lost. It is in Sir Edwin Arnold's favor that the human element in his poems is far stronger than in those of his predecessors; and there is nothing stronger in modern English ballad literature —nothing in Macaulay or Lockhart or Kingsley—than his "The Rajah's Ride" and "The Rajpoot Wife." Nor are there many contem-

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porary English poems which have touched the deepest chords of human experience more effectively than "He Who Died at Azan" (called here "After Death in Arabia") and "She and He." If, as seems to be the case, an author's permanent fame is adjusted to the high-water mark of his work, Sir Edwin Arnold's reputation may rest finally on these.

There is nothing in Mr. Aldrich's new poem 'Wyndham Towers' (Houghton) to remind the reader of Moore and Southey, but there is a certain Leigh-Huntish flavor which suggests another model, and one which has a marked influence on contemporary English verse from Andrew Lang onward. Nothing in Mr. Aldrich's longer poems has the grace and attractive sentimental flavor of "Rimini," nor can any one of his shorter lyrics, admirable as they sometimes are, be placed beside "Jenny Kissed Me"; but, for all that, there is something in common. A single brief drama of Mr. Aldrich's, "Mercedes," gave a glimpse of a strength which nothing else in his works has confirmed; nor does anything in 'Wyndham Towers' recall it, but it is a graceful English narrative, with the accustomed properties well used and a good many trite images—the unused talents like a sword rusting in its sheath, and the young girl like a May morning. It is curious to see how often this poet's most admired gems are really the mere resetting of what came first from some one else—as, in the last *Atlantic*, his pretty lyric, "Pillared Arch and Sculptured Tower," simply restates what Keats put much better in the famous lines beginning, "O sovereign power of love," with which the second book of "Endymion" opens. After all, there must be something of strength and originality, behind the grace, to carry a poem far down the stream of time.

Even the delicate carefulness of execution for which Mr. Aldrich is so much praised has its marked limitations in his blank verse. There are too many lines ending feebly with prepositions:

"The ivy of an idle legend on"
"Whom his soft mother had made favorite of"
"And this one time must needs lend hearing to";

or lines requiring a forced emphasis in the reading, as

"Man's foot came not there. It was hallowed ground";

or two consecutive lines with an unpleasing assonance in the ending, as

"And tell-tale places where the moonlight fell
Crept through the huddled shadows back to hall."

Nor can we find anything graceful or appropriate in the most salient and original image of the whole poem, where the author says of the aspect of his demure little heroine,

"If so much beauty had a tiger been,
'T had eaten him."

Finally, we notice that in order to make his verse flow smoothly, the author has to accent Málay on the first syllable, and Proserpina on the penultimate—in both cases contrary to the authorities. In spite of all these criticisms—the making of which is a compliment, since they imply that we are dealing with an artist in words—the poem is readable and vivacious; and there are a few lines, such as

"The moths on indolent white damask wings,"

which might have come from Keats, and a description of a sunrise (p. 61) that is good enough to have come from anybody.

Even the stanchest admirers of Mr. Swinburne must own, we should fancy, a visible loss of power in his third series of 'Poems and Ballads' (Worthington); yet the faith in an idol dies hard, and it is never quite safe to predict. Certainly the mouthing grandiloquence of his recent and conservative phase of life has little in common with the delicate music of his more ideal poems, or with the extraordinary vigor of some of his Revolutionary strains. The only poem in this book which has anything in common with the heroic strength of his "Song in Time of Order" is "A Jacobite's Farewell," which is worth, to our thinking, many times over, the forty pages of turgid gasconade under the name of "The Armada":

"A JACOBITE'S FAREWELL, 1716.

"There's nae mair lands to tyne, my dear,
And nae mair lives to gie;
Though a man think sair to live nae mair,
There's but one day to die.

"For a' things come and a' days gane,
What needs ye rend your hair?
But kiss me till the morn's morrow,
Then I'll kiss ye nae mair.

"O lands are lost and life's losing,
And whet were they to gie?
Fu' mony a man gives all he can,
But nae man else gives ye.

"Our King wons ower the sea's water,
And I in prison sair;
But I'll win out the morn's morrow,
And ye'll see me nae mair." (P. 167.)

Far more attractive to us than most of Mr. Swinburne's wide-mouthed lines are two new volumes that have come from the yet unexhausted genius of Scotland. One of these is 'A Book of Verses,' by W. E. Henley (Scribner & Welford), opening with an extraordinary series of poems, unique in literature, and drawn, it is said, from the author's actual experience in hospital. The theme might seem repellent, and it is, but there is no coarse French taste for merely physical horrors—as in the Salon pictures—while the uttermost realities of drug and knife are brought before us, and even of anæsthetics:

"Behold me waiting; waiting for the knife.
A little while and at a leap I storm
The thick, sweet mystery of chloroform,
The drunken dark—the little death in life." (P. 7.)

While thus waiting in hospital, the author sketches, as it were on his thumb-nail, inimitable pictures of surgeons, nurses, and patients—Mr. R. L. Stevenson among them—so that we feel that we have personally known them all. Later in the book he widens his range, but still keeps a tight grip on all he attempts to draw. Sometimes he verges on coarseness, sometimes there are echoes of Heine, but it would really be hard to point to any recent volume of so much promise from London. Here is a bit of local coloring which will have interest for all Americans, North and South. It is one of the hospital poems:

ROMANCE.

"Talk of pluck," pursued the Sailor,
Set at euchre on his elbow,
"I was on the wharf at Charleston
Just ashore from off the runner.

"It was gray and dirty weather,
And I heard a drum go rolling,
Rub-a-dubbing in the distance,
Awful dour-like and defiant.

"In and out among the cotton,
Mud, and chains, and stores, and anchors,
Tramped a squad of battered scarecrows—
Poor old Dixie's bottom dollar!

"Some had shoes, but all had rifles,
Them that wasn't bald was beardless,
And the drum was rolling *Dixie*,
And they stepped to it like men, sir!

"Rags and tatters; belts and bayonets,
On they swung, the drum a-rolling,
Mum and dour. It looked like fighting,
And they meant it too, by thunder!" (P. 33.)

The other Scotch book, in its way as remarkable, is 'The Bird-Bride, and Other Poems,' by Graham R. Tomson (Longmans). This name will be familliar to all lovers of ballad literature as that of the editor of the best collection yet made of 'Ballads of the North Countrie,' prefaced by the best condensed essay on that theme. The newspapers have not yet settled whether it is Mrs. Graham R. Tomson to whom we owe all this—although we have no doubts on that subject—or a rumored "Mrs. Sharp," who is further described as being Spanish in appearance and with rope-like coils of blue-black hair. But whatever her name or *chevelure*, she is one of the few persons in modern days who can produce a ballad. It is an art that still survives in Edinburgh—witness poor Sydney Dobell's 'Keith of Ravelston'—but he wrote only one conspicuous and triumphant ballad, and this lady half-a-dozen. "The Bird-Bride" appeared in *Harper's Magazine;* but it is no finer than "Pentyre Town," "Deid Folks' Ferry," "The Cruel Priest," and "The Blind Ghost," while "Le Mauvais Larron," rather a tragic poem than a ballad, is very likely to outlive the picture by Willette for which it was written.

These two volumes stand out distinctly amid the flood of triviality which just now passes for high poetic art in London. We can hardly link in this encomium the poem 'Divine Philosophy,' by Macmillan (London: Kegan Paul); for though the philosophy is that of Charles Darwin, the poetry takes us back to his grandfather Erasmus, which is a less pleasing association. We own to preferring a gay little book, 'Through Romany Songland,' by Laura Alexandrine Smith (London: David Stott), giving the words and the music of many gypsy songs of different countries.

There are always volumes of verse which have a certain simple and elementary value—we might perhaps almost call it culinary. They are like the doughnuts one still finds lingering on the breakfast-tables of otherwise ambitious rural inns, a connecting link with their old-time public of stage-passengers. Such books are, for instance, the curiously named 'City Legends' of Will Carleton (Harpers), and 'The Children, and Other Verses,' by Charles M. Dickinson (Cassell). Mr. Carleton as justly appeals in his preface to "his large family of readers" as Mr. Prang might point with pride to the number who purchase his chromos; and Mr. Dickinson says that his title-poem has been widely copied over the name of Charles Dickens, so that the son of the novelist here supplies a letter to disclaim the authorship. Having thus the substance of fame, why should these authors care for its shadow, criticism? The test of a breakfast-table, it may justly be said, lies in the appetite of the guests.

In the series of "Knickerbocker Nuggets," Mr. George Cary Eggleston edits two little volumes of 'American War Ballads' (Putnams). The little books are of very dainty execution as regards type and paper, but are disfigured by a great inequality of execution in the vignettes; some of these, as in the case of "Paul Jones's Victory" and "Sheridan's Ride," being simply grotesque. The selection of poems is fairly good, but far less admirable than that of Mr. Brander Matthews's 'Poems of American Patriotism,' published some years since. Unfortunately, too, the editor, by limiting himself to lyrics, excludes some of the finest poems of the war, such as Lowell's "Commemoration Ode" and Aldrich's "Fredericksburg" sonnet. There is also an unaccountable absence of alphabetical indexes to the poems, whether of author, titles, or first lines.

In the way of recent religious poetry, there are two notable translated volumes. One of these is a rhythmical version of Thomas à Kempis's 'Imitation of Christ' in the original metres (A. D. F. Randolph & Co.), which, for the first time, takes us back to the period when this Christian classic bore the name of 'Church Music' (*Musica Ecclesiastica*), and was known only in its rhythmical arrangement. Certainly the increased dignity and sweetness of the present form justify the translator in his labors and Canon Liddon in his preface. Another similar treatment of a yet older religious work is 'The Poetry of Job,' by Dr. George H. Gilbert of the Chicago Theological Seminary (Chicago: Mc-

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Clurg), containing a new metrical version of this book of Scripture with an essay. Both parts are fine in conception and treatment, but cause some surprise that the author should omit all reference to his accomplished predecessor in the same work, the late Prof. Noyes of Harvard, whose 'Amended Version of the Book of Job' came as a revelation of new beauty to the last generation of American readers.

In the way of miscellaneous verse there is a little volume of rather light-weight verse by Walter Learned, called 'Between Times' (Stokes), with preliminary verses by George Parsons Lathrop, who is too hopeful, we think, of the career of a poet who compares autumn to "a decrepit citizen" (p. 5), and describes Psyche as spilling hot kerosene on Cupid's shoulder (p. 37). The inexhaustible vitality and drollery of Mr. Charles Godfrey Leland is exhibited *in extenso* in a new edition of 'The Breitmann Ballads,' very greatly enlarged (London: Trübner). There is at the end a curious glossary of jargon by the late Nicholas Trübner. Philip Acton's 'Songs and Sonnets' (Longmans) have in them a good deal that is commonplace, but nothing that goes further in that direction than this description of "Memnon and His Mate" in Egypt:

> "There sat the everlasting pair,
> Full twenty cubits in the air,
> Each in his monumental chair,
> A superhuman pile." (P. 45.)

'The Manx Witch, and Other Poems,' by T. E. Brown (Macmillan), is a curious book, written mostly in dialect, and with here and there gleams of real power, but chiefly interesting as a glossary. 'Before and After: Concerning Sergeant Thomas Atkins, Grenadier Guards, with Other Verses,' by R. St. John Tyrwhitt (Macmillan), is, on the other hand, chiefly interesting as theology, and not very much so even in that way. The Rev. Arthur Wentworth Eaton's 'Acadian Legends and Lyrics' (White & Allen), though the work of a theologian, is not theological, and has some agreeable local coloring from Evangeline's country. Mr. Francis Lucas, in 'Sketches of Rural Life' (Macmillan), has some stirring strains about hedgers and woodmen, such as will be dear to the readers of Thomas Hardy's novels. In 'Echoes of Thought,' by Emily E. Reader (Longmans), the modest name is well justified, and the most interesting echoes are those from Egyptian mythology. Mr. William Larminie versifies the Irish traditions in 'Glanlua' (London: Kegan Paul), but less successfully than it is done in the charming versions of Aubrey de Vere.

Several recent volumes of translations touch upon familiar ground. The editor of the "Chandos Classics" gives us a really valuable and well-edited volume of selected translations from the whole works of Horace (F. Warne & Co.). The collection includes the work of poets of every grade, from Ben Jonson to the present day, all united in the sincere effort to perform a feat which is in itself impossible. Far easier is the task of Mr. Henry Hamilton, who tries his hand at the first six books of Virgil's 'Æneid' (Putnams); but he destroys his chances of success, at the outset, by undertaking to render the dignified uniformity of Virgil into a variety of metres—a method which leaves his case as hopeless as that of the others. Mr. Justin H. McCarthy has given us a prose translation of the "Rubáiyát" of Omar Khayyám, printed daintily, but somewhat affectedly, in capitals, and prefaced by an introduction so dapper and jaunty that every lover of these extraordinary poems must wish that he had left them untouched. Surely neither Whinfield, nor Nicolas, nor Garner has succeeded in so denuding these magnificent verses of their peculiar thrill. That much of their glory is Fitzgerald's we know; it is only needful, in order to make sure of that, to open his "Agamemnon," and come upon such a quatrain as:

> "Call not on Death, old man, that, call'd or no,
> Comes quick: nor spend your ebbing breath on me.
> Nor Helena, who but as arrows be
> Shot by the hidden hand behind the bow."

Such a passage, like a comparison of equations in algebra, helps to determine for us the value of the two unknown quantities, x = Omar, y = Fitzgerald; we ask no more. If so much of the Persian is the Englishman, why not leave the matter there? They may well remain double stars, as Emerson says of Socrates and Plato. It is evident from Mr. McCarthy that he found the study of his author in the original Persian difficult; but we wish, in Dr. Johnson's phrase, that it had been impossible. A really delightful little book, still edited by the ubiquitous Mrs. Graham R. Tomson, is a volume of 'Selections from the Greek Anthology' in the "Canterbury Poets" series (London: Walter Scott). The little poems of the Anthology are to Greek literature what the Tanagra figurines are to Greek art: they admit us instantly to the whole world of home and private life. In spite of the labors of Bland, Merivale, and others, the best English rendering of these works has been in the prose volume of Bohn's Library. If the present compendium is better, it is largely due to the talent of a lady to us hitherto unknown and bearing the name of Alma Strettell—a name so quaint that we cannot help suspecting it to be simply a mask of the editor; not "M. Tonson come again," but Mme. Tomson, who certainly shows herself in the preface to be familiar with Meleager in the original. The versions under this name are uniformly terse, close, vigorous, and graceful; far surpassing those of Mr. Gosse, which are apt to have something of a cockney flavor, or of Mr. Andrew Lang, who modernizes Rufinus into *ballades*, and enfeebles the fresh, hirsute vigor of Theocritus with "meseems" and "winsome." Our chief objection to the editor's work, indeed, is that she falls sufficiently into the prevalent London Gallicism to employ two little French verses as a motto for her book, where they are as essentially out of place as would have been a Japanese vignette.

WILSON'S 'THE STATE.'

The State: Elements of Historical and Practical Politics. A Sketch of Institutional History and Administration. By Woodrow Wilson, Ph.D., LL.D. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 1889.

THE somewhat complicated title which Prof. Wilson has chosen for this volume suggests the difficulty in which he has been involved by his plan. There is room for doubt as to the wisdom of attempting to compress into one treatise an account of the political institutions of all times as well as an epitome of political history. The subject is too vast to admit of very thorough treatment within such narrow limits, and where so much must be omitted, there will always be differences of opinion as to what the omissions should be. It is, perhaps, on this account that, as the author observes, he has had no predecessors; that "no text-book of like scope and purpose has hitherto been attempted." As a consequence, the book is inconveniently large for a text-book, while it is not full enough for a book of reference. But, in spite of all difficulties and drawbacks, the work has been very well done. The best authorities have been followed, and followed intelligently, and the arrangement of details concerning modern institutions of government has evidently been elaborated with the most careful industry. The style is clear, and there is a certain vivacity in the narrative portions of the text that relieves the dryness of the theme.

The earlier chapters treat of the origin and development of government in general, substantially in accordance with the views of such writers as Maine, Lubbock, Spencer, and Bagehot. The ancient city is described in the spirit of Coulanges's essay, and the political history of the leading Greek states is given with considerable detail, and as it is to be found in the standard histories. On the other hand, the treatment of the political institutions of Rome is exceedingly meagre. Scarcely a dozen pages, or about the space given to that mere archæological curiosity, the government of Lacedæmon, suffice to bring us down to the period of the Empire. The subsequent changes are described with more fulness; still, to take one instance, it would not be very easy to determine from this account the nature of the administration of a municipality in the provinces at the time of the Teutonic invasion. The discussion of the influence of the Roman law could, perhaps, not very well be omitted in a treatise that is for this period mainly historical; but if positive law is to be described among the institutions of government, it is easy to see that, within such space as is here at command, the description must be inadequate. It would have been probably more effective to give more attention to the administrative methods and achievements of the Romans, and to relinquish their jurisprudence to the care of specialists.

As to the Teutonic peoples, the description is taken in the main from accepted authorities; but the student might get the impression that a true nobility existed among them in primitive times. Here, too, we think that the desire to emphasize contrasts leads the author to overlook the existence of personal allegiance among the Romans. It was undoubtedly more prominent among the Barbarians, but it prevailed necessarily under the Roman system of landed estates, and was conspicuous in many of their intestine broils, to say nothing of the extended relation of patron and client. In the account of the separation of the Papacy from the Empire, it is a rather serious omission to say nothing of the influence of the Lombards, and it is a still more serious error, or cluster of errors, to say that "the Pope, arrogating to himself the prerogatives of king-maker, crowned Charles the Great Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire—'Holy' because created by the authority of mother Church." The Empire did not become "holy" for some centuries, probably, after this event, and the title seems to have been assumed in opposition to the exclusive claims of the Church, which was disposed to look down upon the civil power as earthly and profane. In a work of such extensive range, it is highly dangerous for a compiler to vary in the slightest degree from his authorities, and to yield to the temptation to make his style graphic by adding touches of his own origination, which, however well meant, may mislead the ignorant and arouse distrust among the learned.

As the author approaches modern times he treads upon firmer ground, and his description of the political institutions of the leading European countries is perhaps the most valuable portion of his book, containing a good deal of matter that is not easily accessible. Neither Italy, nor Spain, nor Russia, however, so far as we have observed, receives the slightest mention; nor is there anywhere in the book, we believe, anything more than an allusion to the

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political institutions of the Asiatic peoples. About one-third of the volume is devoted to the governments of England and the United States, an allowance of space that enables the author to give a comparatively thorough treatment to the complicated political machinery of these countries. But in many instances here he is, in our judgment, carried away by his passion for neat theories and sweeping generalizations. Desiring to make an effective contrast between the civilization of the New England colonies and those of the South, he represents the early settlers of Virginia as spreading far and wide in the pursuit of agriculture, while in New England "every circumstance invited to close settlement and trade, to the intimate relationships of commerce and the adventures of seafaring, rather than to the wide-spreading settlements characteristic of an agricultural population." While it is true that commerce after a time arose, no one who is conversant with the early history of New England would maintain that the primitive settlers were not in the main devoted to agriculture, or characterize their settlements otherwise than as wide-spreading; nor do the circumstances of the "long winters" and "bleak coast winds" seem to invite to "the adventures of seafaring" with irresistible persuasiveness.

The futility of such preconceived theories appears plainly enough when they are applied to the middle colonies, which,

"though possessed of a rich soil, had also fine seaports which invited to commerce; their climate was neither so harsh as that of New England nor so mild and beguiling as that of the Southern colonies. Their people, consequently, built towns and traded, like the people of New England; but also spread abroad over the fertile country and farmed, like the people of Virginia. . . . Townships they had, but counties also; they were simple and democratic, like the New Englanders, and yet they were agricultural also, like the Virginians."

Why a people may not be at the same time simple and democratic as well as agricultural is not explained; but, at all events, the diversity of the political institutions of the early colonies is not to be accounted for by such crude statements as these.

Upon another point in this connection—the process of institutional growth in the early colonies of New England—the author is not less superficial. The impression conveyed is, that the towns were in the first place independent communities, which were gradually brought into some kind of federal union. "The process is obviously federative from the first." "Gradually the towns . . . drew together into the colonies known to later times." "But at first these larger colonies were scarcely more than town leagues." We do not think that this impression would survive a perusal of the early laws of "The Massachusetts"; but we can do no more here than state that it is not to be accepted as in unquestioned correspondence with fact.

There are some chapters at the close of the book upon Law, and upon the nature, forms, functions, and objects of Government. It is of course impossible to deal fairly with such matters in a few pages, but there is much that is judicious in their treatment. Upon the whole, however, the book is not to be recommended without qualification as a text-book. The basis of scholarship upon which it rests seems to be scarcely broad enough or deep enough, and at the same time there are few teachers who have the scholarship with which to neutralize its mistakes. It is to be feared that a tendency exists among our rising school of historical writers to adopt rather a scientific vocabulary than a scientific method. We hear much talk of society as an organism; of growth and development, of crystallization, and integration, and solidarity. These are convenient expressions, but they may sometimes serve to conceal a lack of thought. It is quite possible to mistake a metaphor for a demonstration, and to deal so nimbly with abstractions as to make them pass for the concrete. It is well for every writer to bear in mind that the success of comparative methods depends upon minute and accurate observation, and that without this fund of knowledge the affectation of broad and sweeping generalizations can impose only upon the vulgar.

Appreciations. With an Essay on Style. By Walter Pater. Macmillan & Co. 1889.

THESE critical essays are gathered from Mr. Pater's occasional writings of the past fifteen years upon English authors. They are upon a lower level than his imaginative work, which is also so essentially criticism, and deal more directly with the actual work and individuality of men eminent for the qualities which he prizes. They are, of course, highly intellectual in matter, and controlled by the tastes and principles which make the positive part of the author's work in all his writings; the subjects are old, and consequently the interest lies in Mr. Pater's own treatment. He begins with Style. Originality of thought is not to be looked for in such a topic. The most to be required is freshness of presentation—some rearrangement of customary ideas, some felicity of restatement, some semblance of a new point of view. Mr. Pater resorts naturally to the aspect of the matter as seen from within, from the genius engaged in the production of literature instead of from the completed work; and therefore he interprets the structure which belongs to style as proceeding from mind, and the charm which it possesses as born of the soul. Mind and soul must be in style, and the expression of these must be submitted to the restrictions, depending on language, which lie in the province of grammar and rhetoric. He concludes with the assertion of the canon that the result will be great art in proportion to the value, compass, and serviceableness to men of the contents.

This is set forth in a refreshing way, however, and with seeming novelty; and, as hardly needs to be said, is interspersed with those brief, fine statements by the way which are so large a part of his attraction to the cultivated reader. He uses Flaubert as an example of the devotee to style, with effect, but too much in Arnold's manner to be pleasing in one whose own less didactic style is thus displaced. The same subject is practically taken up, also, in the last essay upon the meaning of the words "classical" and "romantic," upon which likewise there is nothing new to be said. The classical involves the predominance of mind, the romantic that of soul, in style, using the last word as meaning total expression; the one stands for manner as against matter, for authority as against experiment, for the customary as against the disturbing; both seek beauty, but the romantic seeks it with a curiosity and a delight in the strange which sometimes sacrifices beauty. In Greek and Roman literature itself, the romantic spirit is a living one. Such are the main lines of definition; and, as in the essay upon Style, the freshness of statement gives interest to principles which must be often repeated as time goes on.

The essays upon particular subjects are of more importance. Wordsworth, Coleridge, Sir Thomas Browne, Lamb, Shakspere, and the two æsthetic poets, Morris and Rossetti, are the titles. The discussion of Wordsworth's genius is admirable to a degree hardly to be expected from Mr. Pater, and illustrates the breadth of his appreciation of literary qualities. One feels, as he reads, that much of Wordsworth is being frankly suppressed and put out of sight. But what remains—the sense of nature to the solitary, the nearness of nature to peasant life as a fact observed, the theatre offered by peasant life for the display of primitive passion so finely relieved on a nature-background, the sensibility of Wordsworth to vague, speculative ideas of the race with regard to the animate soul of the universe and man's emergence from it at birth, and the great practical wisdom of the poet in morals—all this is fully recognized. And, in these special points, together with the fact that the high mood always brought to Wordsworth noble expression, Mr. Pater finds the greatness of his poetry. Coleridge exhibits so great a contrast to Wordsworth that it is painful to set them side by side. He stood, Mr. Pater says, for the reaction, or for the last struggle of the "absolute" with the incoming influence of the "relative" as the controlling spirit of modern thought; and in poetry the critic again points to the cadence of the verse, the sensuous perception of beauty, and the fantastic imaginative element in conception, which characterize his work. The remaining essays are of the same sort—not novel or original in matter, but gaining value from the treatment.

This method of treatment is familiar to all who are acquainted with the individuality of spirit in Mr. Pater's work. He seeks for excellence, and has a welcome for it, and actually prizes it, in whatever literature has to offer in illustration of human life on its ideal, its beautiful or poetical, sides. This sensibility, by virtue of which he really experiences the books he reads, is supplemented by a vigorous and highly cultivated intelligence which makes him seem at times more absorbed in general ideas, in the universal mood of an age, the characteristic state of culture then existing, than in the particular example of one or another author. These general world-old ideas, which literature does but repeat from century to century, these special qualities of a whole generation in different periods of history, have been so attended to by him that they have gifted him with a peculiar, and in our time unique, culture, of which his pages bear the stamp, whatever the subject may be. The value of these essays, therefore, is not easily described, is not indicated truly by such abstract of contents as we have given; it consists in the constancy and directness with which he brings commonplace, or at least not unusual, remarks on authors, into relation with the phases of past or modern culture, and in the illustration he sheds upon the authors from abstract ideas. His criticism is more often for the intellect than for the æsthetic sense. For this reason he succeeds best in his imaginative work, when he can construct his own characters. In dealing with other men's creations or personalities he is limited by their defects, and his exposition seems incomplete. Yet these essays upon Lamb, Browne, and especially upon Shakspere's *Richard II.* and *Biron*, are charming by their subtle and cheerful appreciation, their intimate understanding of individual traits, their generous praise, and their unceasing thoughtfulness upon the higher issues involved in every life, whether real or the creation of genius. If the critic appears less brilliant than in more important books from his pen, he seems perhaps more friendly and near at hand.

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A Popular Treatise on the Winds: comprising the general motions of the atmosphere, monsoons, cyclones, tornadoes, waterspouts, hail-storms, etc., etc. By William Ferrel, M.A., Ph.D. John Wiley & Sons. 1889. Large 8vo, 505 pp. Tables, references, and full index.

THIS is a book to which studious readers, inclined towards physical geography, will turn with great interest; and if they persevere to an understanding of its thorough statement, meteorology will have gained something of the aspect of an exact science in their minds. It is a book to which teachers in particular can resort with confidence, and from which they can take mental discipline as well as example and instruction. It marks the rounding of a period in our meteorological history—a period in which we may justly take much pride.

Ferrel's first essay in meteorology appeared in 1856, when he was nearly forty years of age. It was published in so unconspicuous a periodical as the Nashville *Journal of Medicine and Surgery;* and the preface to the present volume tells us that the first essay was prompted by reading, in Maury's 'Physical Geography of the Sea,' an account of the excess of atmospheric pressure in two belts around the earth, at latitudes 30° north and south, and of its deficiency around the equator and at the poles. The student of elementary meteorology may appreciate how difficult it would be to explain the low pressure at the poles by means of the ordinary convectional theory of atmospheric circulation; for the decrease of temperature and the convergence of the meridians towards the poles ought, in the absence of other causes, to produce high pressure there. There is hardly a single text-book in use that makes adequate explanation of this curious contradiction of old theory by new facts, although the real meaning of it was given thirty years ago by Ferrel, when he ascribed it to the effect of a circumpolar whirling of the general circulation of the atmosphere, induced by the effect of the earth's rotation on the convectional interchange between equator and poles. The essential nature of the process is simply conceived, although its full mathematical expression is not yet attained. This discovery, like others by which Ferrel has given rational explanation to cyclones and tornadoes, has for its characteristic the careful deductive correlation of facts derived from meteorological observation with principles gained from physical study. The student of the history of method in scientific research will surely place high value on Ferrel's work, as illustrating the most admirable development of logical investigation, in which induction and deduction are rationally combined. Perhaps the reason that this combination has not been more often found among meteorologists is, that so few of them are sufficiently educated on the physical and mathematical side to allow it. The popular idea of a meteorologist, as one who keeps a record of the weather, is not so far wrong as we could wish it might be.

An account of the many interruptions in Ferrel's meteorological work may be found in the sketch of his life by McAdie, in the *American Meteorological Journal* for February, 1888. We need here only advert to his studies of ten years ago, when engaged in the Coast Survey on researches for the use of the Coast Pilot—which we cannot mention without smiling at the astonishment our hardy sailors must have felt on meeting the intricate formulæ prepared for their edification—and of later time, when occupied in the Signal Office in preparing a volume on 'Recent Advances in Meteorology,' which appeared in the annual report of the Chief Signal Officer for 1885. The greater part of these essays is beyond the non-mathematical reader, although the paragraphs in which theory is confronted with facts are highly instructive; and it is with the intention of reducing his studies nearer to popular reading that the volume here considered has been prepared. Our indebtedness for it must increase when we remember that it is completed after its industrious author has attained three score years and ten.

The full title of the volume gives sufficient indication of its contents, but its pages must be consulted to appreciate the fulness of knowledge with which it has been composed. It is not easy reading, and cannot be digested by those who have not made some previous beginning in its subjects; nor will readers unaccustomed to serious thinking find its style to their liking; but for teachers, as already said, and for students in a second course, it is simply invaluable. The only other work to be named with it is Sprung's 'Lehrbuch der Meteorologie' (Hamburg, 1885), in which the descriptive illustrations are fewer and the discussion is more condensed and mathematical. Ferrel's book has nothing of controversy—not because his studies have been universally accepted, but because he is satisfied to accept the verdict that will be given when his work is well understood. It contains little of the historical development of the questions treated, perhaps because their previous theoretical treatment is so insufficient; for it may be truly said that the greater part of the book is concerned with questions to which the author's own contributions outrank all others. Yet the reader would hardly suspect this, so impersonal is the style of presentation. It is occupied throughout with a minute, methodical statement directly to the point. The presentation is at times so deliberate that the reader would do well to make a brief outline of the contents of a chapter and their argumentative sequence, if he would possess them fully.

The method of the book is so characteristic of the author's work that we must recur to it again. Each problem is entered with the general facts concerning it in mind; the theory of the process by which the facts are to be explained is then followed out deductively to its extremest consequences; finally, these consequences are confronted with a greatly enlarged collection of facts in order to test the sufficiency of the theory. The comparisons here made between deduction and observation must go far towards convincing the student that meteorological theory has taken a very respectable position in the circle of the sciences. If we look for other examples of this method, we find that it is seen in essence in the work of Espy, as compared with the more simply inductive work of Dové; or again in the modern school of meteorology as a whole compared with the earlier school, of which Schmid's 'Lehrbuch' may be taken as the exponent; or, once more, in the German-Austrian school as compared with that prevalent in Great Britain, and represented by Buchan and Laughton. It is not so much the effort to combine inductive and deductive processes into a logical whole that characterizes Ferrel's work (for all investigators attempt the combination to a certain degree); it is the success of the effort, the distance to which the combination is carried, and the critical discussion of the sufficiency of its results, that distinguish Ferrel's writings. Only in recent years have others undertaken meteorological studies in this serious fashion—some of them, doubtless, inspired by Ferrel's success, others taking up the same method independently; but we believe that all these regard Ferrel's studies as marking the beginning of an epoch in mathematical and physical meteorology.

There is no place in a newspaper notice for extracts from so condensed a volume as this treatise is; but if our readers wish to appreciate its quality, let them first read up some of its topics in the best books of reference they can consult, and then turn to the same subjects in Ferrel's pages.

Cambridge: Brief Historical and Descriptive Notes. By J. W. Clark, M.A., formerly Fellow of Trinity College. Pp. 326. London: Seeley & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co.

THIS is in many respects a singular book. The letter-press seems to be a *verbatim* reprint from a more showy but less handy volume issued by the same house in 1881. That book contained large etchings, of which the designs, reduced on wood, appear in the present edition. But there is not a word from author or publisher to show that the small book dated 1890 is a mere copy of the big book dated 1881.

Those who knew the old book well, and looked for something new, are naturally disappointed; but those who never saw the old will be tantalized. For one who has lived in Cambridge and knows University and town well, Mr. Clark's notes are very fragmentary; to those who never enjoyed that privilege, they are likely to be well-nigh unintelligible. It is not any too easy to discover the thread on which the notes are strung; but close examination seems to show that Mr. Clark reviews in chronological order, first, the existing remnants of Cambridge before the University existed, then the like remains in each college, and develops, as its date presents each piece, something of the College history. Not that this order is by any means strictly followed; for instance, Emmanuel College is discussed before Jesus College (out of regard for American ears, we do not, as any Cambridge man on the spot would certainly do, omit the word "college" after these names), though, from every point of view, Emmanuel is the later.

This singularly chosen order of chapters makes the book seem very desultory. The writer skips about topographically and historically, in a manner hard to follow even by an alumnus. Of the town he gives no plan, though it would not have been hard to overlay the lines of the modern sheets with the ancient ones in red, as in Burn's 'Rome,' so as to indicate the many changes—changes which Mr. Clark himself says make identifications difficult. St. Catherine's College, and the two founded between 1600 and 1800, are barely alluded to; and those which owe their growth to University expansion in this century—Girton, Newnham, Cavendish, and Selwyn—are wholly ignored. It may be said that this is because their buildings present no room for interesting architectural discussions. Then why fill out the book by a chapter on social life in Cambridge sixty years ago, the greater part of which may be found in print elsewhere?

But of the older colleges, even Trinity Hall and Corpus get in only over the wall, as it were, by virtue of the quaint library of the former and St. Benet's Tower near the latter. Mr. Clark seems fettered by the necessity of having some interesting bit of antique architecture which he can use as a peg on which to hang an indefinite amount of antiquarian matter in prose and verse, much of it curious and rare, much stale and cheap. And even in

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those college histories which he expands most fully, there occur singular gaps. Why such faint allusions to the old Court of King's and the moving of its bridge? Why not tell how St. Peter's Church yielded its name to the miniature and now disused structure near the castle, becoming itself Little St. Mary's? Why no more, or, as to that, why nothing, about the lovely old gate opposite Trinity Hall? Why nothing of the discoveries in the "Labyrinth" of St. John's when the old chapel was destroyed?

Perhaps the non-Cantabrigian reader will be bewildered by this list. But he will be not less bewildered by Mr. Clark's book as it is. He will probably feel like Mr. Verdant Green's father, who "took back to the country a somewhat confused recollection of Oxford," after the guide had trotted him through "the 'alls, colleges, and principal buildings in an hour and a 'arf." There is no proportion in the book, a result perhaps due to Mr. Clark's admiration of the charming irregularities of what ancient bits of building survive in Cambridge, and his just contempt for the priggish and meaningless Italian structures of 1750–1800. We do not overlook the many good things in the book. Mr. Clark is a Cambridge boy, and loves his home. He shows a good deal of reading, and no little personal research; the English is good, and there is a pleasant air over the whole, such as the author himself brings into University society. The book is good enough to have been better; as it is, it reads as if written up to the pictures. There is some history; some archæology; some anecdote; a little original research; a great deal of not over-new padding, and no system—or at best an obscure one.

The English and Scottish Popular Ballads. Edited by Francis James Child. Part vi. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

THE sixth part of this work deals mainly with the historical and quasi-historical ballads, those relating to war or personal adventure. The number contained in it amounts to thirty-three, and among these are some of the most widely known poems in ballad literature, such, in particular, as the "Battle of Otterburn" and the "Hunting of the Cheviot," or, as it is popularly called, "Chevy Chase." In addition to the numerous variants, there are between twenty and thirty pages given up to corrections and additions that still further illustrate the parts previously published.

In this meagre way we are compelled to notice the progress of a work which exhibits in a preëminent degree the results of the most patient investigation and of the profoundest learning in the special department that has been made the subject of inquiry. To every lover of literature it is gratifying to observe that this immense and toilsome task is so well on its way to completion, embodying and thereby permanently preserving as it does a wealth of information which it is almost hopeless to expect will ever be amassed again. It is extremely unlikely that future discoveries will ever add much to the quality or even to the quantity of what has been collected here. The appreciation of the work as well as its value will accordingly increase steadily with the flight of time. It is already noticeable that this quarry is beginning to be worked by those who are quick to seize upon what has been accomplished by the labor of others, and to put into popular form what they have themselves neither the knowledge nor ability to gather or to originate.

It is to be hoped that when this monumental work has been completed, the editor will not be discouraged from fulfilling the promise which he made more than thirty years ago to compose a History (or, as he termed it, an Essay on the History) of Ballad Poetry. No one is so qualified as he to write it; no one, it is to be feared, will ever again be so qualified. It will be a fitting conclusion to one of the greatest works of scholarship the present century has accomplished, and will remain an authority on its subject from which there will be no appeal.

Liberty and a Living. By P. G. Hubert, jr. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THE author of this little book, a man of refined tastes, abandons his occupation in the town for a rural life on the south side of Long Island. With an income of $500 per annum he proposes to lead an existence of comparative liberty and freedom from care. His purpose is to show how, with a cash revenue of the above amount, supplemented by his own efforts as a fisherman, an oysterman, and a taker of crabs, a cultivator of the nimble bee and of small fruits and vegetables, not for profit, but for the sustenance of his family, one may accomplish that result. The experience of those who reside continuously throughout the year on the south side of Long Island, under moral conditions similar to those of Mr. Hubert, but equipped with a much larger income, free from the incentive or necessity to follow piscatorial or agricultural pursuits, and with ample occupation, does not quite sustain his optimistic portrayal of life there. He makes the impression of a young man, not free from illusions, but possessed of habits of industry and application and an admirable placidity and evenness of temper. Without the last, under the conditions of rural life on Long Island, within his environment, which must necessarily bring him into close material relations with the rude natives of the soil, he must needs have long since abandoned his experiment in disgust. What Mr. Hubert has evidently successfully accomplished is within the reach of very few not mentally and morally so well equipped as he.

Apart from the practical benefits which he extracts from its light soil and exhausted waters, Mr. Hubert is evidently a keen lover of the Long Island landscape. Upon this he is to be congratulated, in view of its depressing flatness and monotony. He writes most charmingly. Of the works treating of kindred subjects, his possesses a grace and interest comparable to the very best of those of his predecessors. There are many who long for just the very sort of life which Mr. Hubert portrays. Such may read his little book with profit and pleasure, and if they possess the admirable qualities which must surely belong to one who writes with such simplicity and evident contentment and sincerity, they cannot fail to attain to equally satisfactory results.

Natural History Object Lessons: A Manual for Teachers. By George Ricks. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 1889. 8vo, pp. 352.

THE author of this manual is an inspector of schools for the London School Board, and the book, from its "Boston, U. S. A.," on the title-page to its compact index, is British in every line. We have examined it with some care, and while we cannot recommend it for use as a finished product, we think it will be helpful to really intelligent and progressive teachers who know enough of natural history to discard obsolete systematic biology wherever they may find it, and yet would be grateful for a compend of economic fact and suggestion which would save them time in framing lessons. The scientific side of this book is inadequate and obsolete. The economic and encyclopedic side is much more what such a presentation should be. For ourselves we should prefer two books, such as Huxley for systematics and Simmonds's 'Commercial Products' for the rest, both being original authorities; but, for many, the accumulation of fact and suggestion in this book will be welcome, and its old-fashioned classification not a serious disadvantage.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Cone, Rev. O. Essays, Doctrinal and Practical, by Fifteen Clergymen. Boston: Universalist Pub. House.
Conway, Prof. W. M. Literary Remains of Albrecht Dürer. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press.
Curzon, G. N. Russia in Central Asia in 1887, and the Anglo-Russian Question. Longmans, Green & Co. $6.
Disty, R. Lawyers' Reports, Annotated. Book 4. Rochester, N. Y.: Lawyers' Co-operative Pub. Co.
Doré, G., and Jerrold, D. London: a Pilgrimage. Harper & Bros.
Erdmann, Prof. J. E. A History of Philosophy. 3 vols. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $10.50.
Freeman, A. C. American State Reports. Vol. IX. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.
Gastineau, E. The Conversation Method for Speaking, Reading, and Writing German. Ivison, Blakeman & Co.
Gondola and Palace. Frederick A. Stokes & Bro. $2.
Hallett, H. S. A Thousand Miles on an Elephant in the Shan States. London: William Blackwood & Sons.
History of the Schuylkill Fishing Co., 1732–1888. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates and J. B. Lippincott Co.
Loti, P. Into Morocco. Welch, Fracker & Co. 75 cents.
Lumholtz, C. Among Cannibals: Four Years' Travel in Australia. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $5.
Mantz, P. Salon de 1889. J. W. Bouton.
Mercantile Speller, Containing the Correct Ways of Spelling Words Used in Correspondence. New York: Edmund Blunt.
Murray, J. A. H. A New Dictionary on Historical Principles. Part V. Cast—Cling. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $3.25.
Ruskin, J. Sesame and Lilies. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
The Parts of Speech and How to Use Them. Boston: Ginn & Co. 17 cents.
Thorne, R. Fugitive Facts: An Epitome of General Information. A. L. Burt.
Wieting, Mary E. Prominent Incidents in the Life of Dr. John M. Wieting. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Winsor, J. Narrative and Critical History of America. Vol. VIII. The Later History of British, Spanish, and Portuguese America. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Winter, J. S. Mrs. Bob. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
Winthrop, A. T. Wilfred: A Story with a Happy End ing. 2d ed. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.
Wolf, Rev. E. J. The Lutherans in America. New York: J. A. Hill & Co. $2.75.
Wood, A. Survey of the Antiquities of Oxford, edited by Andrew Clark. Vol. I. The City and Suburbs. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Woolson, Constance F. Jupiter Lights. Harper & Bros.
Wright, M. R. Elementary Physics. Longmans, Green & Co. 80 cents.
Yonge, C. D. Letters of Horace Walpole. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $6.

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VESTGÖTA LAGBOK.
A few copies of this admirable facsimile reprint, noticed in the *Nation* for Nov. 28, 1889, are to be had of the BOSTON BOOK CO., 15½ Beacon St., Boston.

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